

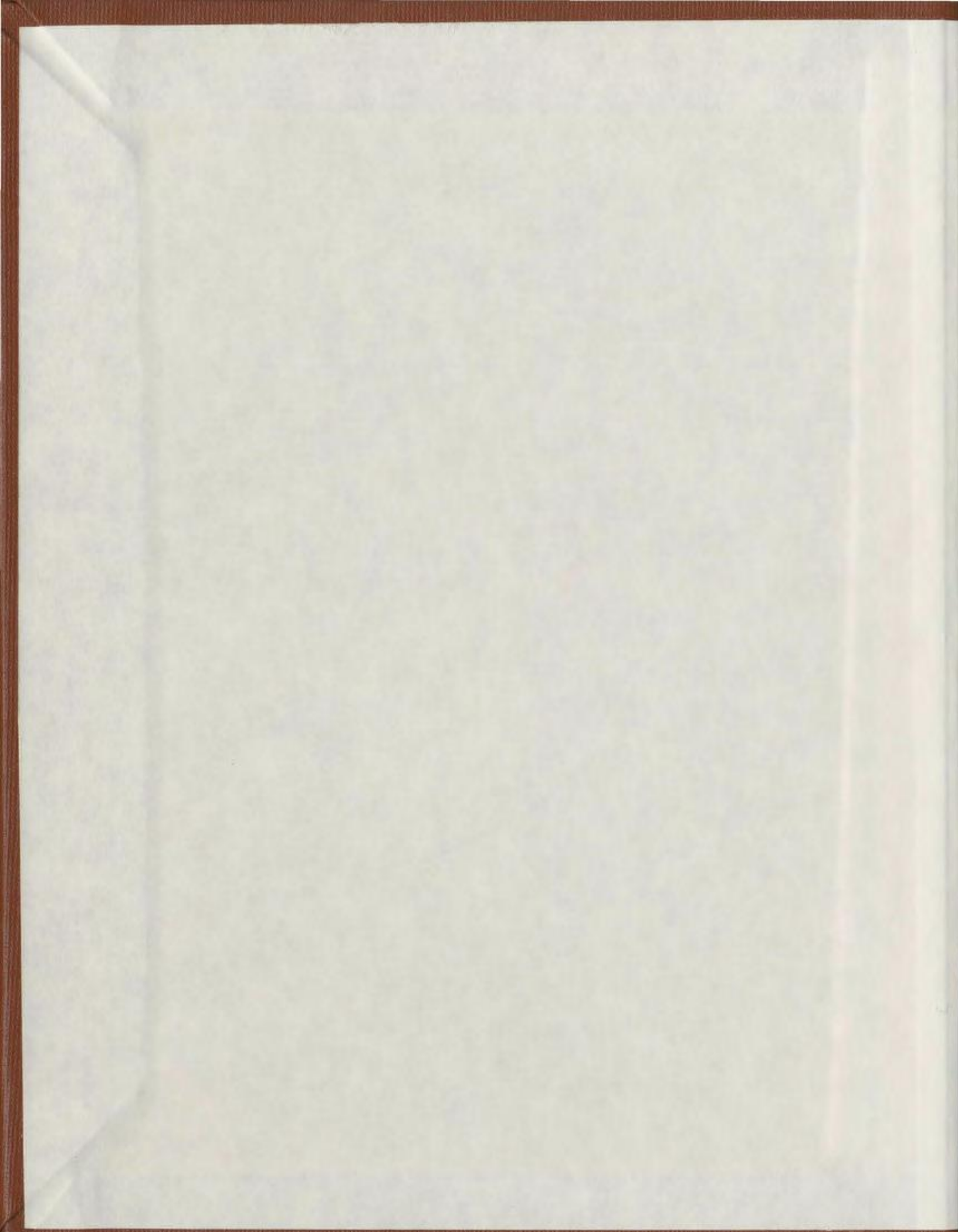
A STUDY OF SOME SELECTED FAMILY VARIABLES
AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO THE SATISFACTION
OF PARENTHOOD

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

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WAYNE HOWARD PAYNE



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A Study of Some Selected Family Variables and Their
Relationship to the Satisfaction of Parenthood

By



Wayne Howard Payne, B.S.W.

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Abstract

The general intentions of this study were to indicate the prevalence of parent satisfaction, to validate a proposed model of parent satisfaction, and to provide answers to a number of important questions such as: Will parents be satisfied with their roles in child-rearing? What factors will determine satisfaction levels?

Statistical data showed that marriage and parenthood are common occurrences among adults although there is a continual decline in fertility rates. Through an extensive review of the literature, the variables of major importance were delineated as being relevant to parent satisfaction. Following a social exchange theoretical approach, these variables were combined with a proposed model of parent satisfaction.

The research instrument, a standardized questionnaire, was administered by means of a personal interview to 100 couples randomly selected from the St. John's telephone directory (both husband and wife were interviewed simultaneously but separately). Data analysis utilized beta coefficients obtained through multiple regression techniques.

The general findings of this study provided support for the three research propositions and validated the proposed parent satisfaction model. From a total of

seventeen hypotheses which were tested, fifteen were confirmed for males and eleven confirmed for females. The findings of this study show that the explanatory power of the parent satisfaction model is stronger for females ($R^2=.24$) than for males ($R^2=.16$). A number of male and female differences emerge from these research findings.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In our society, there is consensus on the concept of parenthood as a positive and a desirable thing. Married couples are expected to want children, and to actually have them, and the data indicate that most couples do in fact follow these expectations (Veevers, 1973). While society may regularly prescribe parenthood as a positive thing, little evidence is available to potential parents to explain the actual parenting experience. Will parents be satisfied with their roles in child-rearing? What factors will determine satisfaction levels? These questions along with others need research attention.

Rehne (1970) expressed surprise that so much attention had centred on marital satisfaction and work satisfaction yet so little on parent satisfaction. However, recent years have seen a marked increase in research on parent satisfaction and the value of children to parents (Fawcett, 1972; Hoffman, 1972; Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Campbell et al, 1976; Chilman, 1977; Beckman, 1978; Hoffman and Manis, 1979). While there appears to be a growing public concern for children, (especially with the celebration of the International Year of the Child and related activities) there

also appears to be gaps in the information that is available concerning the effects of children on the satisfaction of their parents.

Statistics available do provide some information on demographic trends for Canadian families. Available data suggest that now, as in the past, about nine out of every ten adults will marry at least once during their lifetime. Whatever changes may be occurring in the Canadian family, they clearly do not result in a reluctance of persons to marry.

The crude marriage rate (the number of new marriages per 1000 population per year) is used by Statistics Canada as the simplest indicator of the popularity of marriage.

Table 1 describes the Canadian and Newfoundland rates of marriage. Statistics for the latest year available, 1976, show that the Newfoundland rate (7.5) is lower than the Canadian rate (8.4). While the Canadian rate has increased from 7.0 in 1961 to 8.4 in 1976, the Newfoundland rate has actually decreased in recent years from 9.0 in 1971 to 7.5 in 1976. Wakil (1976) predicted a decrease in the marriage rates in the late 1970's reflecting the lower marriage rates of the 1950's which were, again, accompanied by corresponding lower birth rates. This prediction may explain the decrease in the Newfoundland marriage rate and indicate a possible future trend for the Canadian rate.

While the statistical data may show that the crude marriage rate is actually declining, the ratio of people continuing to marry is remaining stable or increasing. These fluctuations in the crude marriage rate may be

attributed to a decline in people who are of marriageable age and an increase in the aged population. Among persons who are old enough to be married, and who are not so old that their involvement in marriage is likely to have led to widowhood, the prevalence of married persons is very high and is gradually increasing (Veevers, 1977).

Table 1.
Marriage and Rates, Canada and Newfoundland,
1961-1976

Year	Rate per 1000 population	
	Canada	Newfoundland
1961	7.0	7.2
1966	7.8	7.6
1971	8.9	9.0
1976	8.4	7.5

Source: 1976 Vital Statistics, Catalogue 84-205,
Table 1.

Another interesting comparison is made when a review is done of the average age at marriage. The Newfoundland average age of marriage is lower than the national average for both brides and bridegrooms and the lowest of all provinces. Table 2 indicates those differences.

Another point of statistical information considers the divorce rate. In 1976, the Canadian rate was 235.8 (rate per 100,000 population) and the Newfoundland rate was 76.0 (Statistics Canada, 1976). While Newfoundland

may have a lower marriage rate, people in this province are getting married at a younger age and are experiencing a much lower rate of dissolution. To a certain extent, the Newfoundland family appears to be maintaining a higher degree of stability than is the Canadian family generally.

Table 2.

Average Age at Marriage, Canada and Newfoundland, 1961-1976

Year	Canada		Newfoundland	
	Brides	Bridegrooms	Brides	Bridegrooms
1961	24.7	27.7	22.8	26.1
1966	24.4	27.0	22.6	25.4
1971	24.8	27.3	22.5	25.0
1976	25.3	27.9	22.8	25.3

Source: 1976 Vital Statistics, Catalogue 84-205, Table 2.

Knowing that approximately ninety per cent of adults will marry, how many couples will have children and how many children will they have? Childlessness is a preferred lifestyle for only a fraction of the population, approximately 5 percent (Veevers, 1972). Voluntary childlessness seems to be increasing very slightly, but the vast majority of couples do not reject parenthood per se. Neither do they readily accept the alternatives of having an only child (Statistics Canada, 1976). Parenthood is a preferred lifestyle which most people wish to pursue.

Both getting married and having children are popular activities for Canadians. With this being the case, how many children do they have? Any review of census data for Canada shows a decline in average family size.

Table 3.

Average Number of Children per Family, Canada and Newfoundland, 1961-1976

Year	Canada	Newfoundland
1961	1.9	2.7
1966	1.9	2.6
1971	1.8	2.5
1976	1.6	2.1

Source: 1976 Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-831, Table 1

Table 3 indicates a decline in average family size in Canada and Newfoundland, but shows that the Newfoundland family size is substantially larger than the national average. Another indication of this difference is shown when an analysis of the natural rate of increase is undertaken. The Canadian rate per 1000 population dropped from 18.4 in 1961 to 8.4 in 1976 whereas the Newfoundland rate dropped from 27.5 in 1961 to 14.0 in 1976 (Statistics Canada, 1976).

Since the early sixties the fertility rate has continued to decline. Statistics indicate an obvious decline

in fertility rates while the Newfoundland rate continues to exceed the National rate. Explanations for declining fertility include urbanization, secularization, and a desire for a smaller family size. This desire for a smaller family has been facilitated by an increase in knowledge of, acceptance of, and access to various forms of birth control, including contraception, legal abortion and sterilization (Statistics Canada, 1977).

The demographic trends in Newfoundland and Canada show that marriage and parenthood are still quite popular, yet there is a continual decline in fertility. What does this statistical information mean? While individuals appear willing to accept marriage, does this mean that they are satisfied with their marriage? Does this mean that married individuals may be less satisfied with their parenting functions? One possible indication of this is the declining fertility rate. This may reflect that parents are preferring to have a greater involvement with fewer children. Through a review of factors that influence satisfaction levels and a study of the prevalence of parent satisfaction, some of these concerns may be clarified.

To broaden the scope of study, it is necessary to review some of the motivations behind having children. Few studies try to account for why parents actually decide to have children, but some researchers have explored this in terms of rewards or value of children.

Hoffman (1972) found that college students most often mention values of children involving: stimulation, novelty and fun; and primary group ties and affection. Fawcett (1974) suggested in a six-country cross-national study that parents in all cultures value children primarily because they bring happiness. Townes et al (1977) reported the perceived positive impact of a child upon parent - child relationships (observing the child's development, having companionship from the child) as an important predictor of fertility behaviour.

Chilman (1977) identified personal fulfillment and love as being the primary motivations for parenthood. In her study of Milwaukee parents, she found parents strongly identifying with the following motivations: watching children grow and develop, love, and companionship. Similarly, Beckman (1978), in her study of employed women, found that factors involving affectional relations with children are probably the most salient satisfaction of parenthood for women.

In summary, then, it would appear that individuals choose to become parents mainly because they perceive children as bringing love and companionship, providing self-fulfillment and primary group ties. These reasons can largely be classified as psychological motivations. No doubt, individuals can probably cite their own motivations for having a child or additional children.

}

Our society prescribes that every married couple should seek to have children. While this may be the case, Clayton (1975) reports that the myth "be fruitful and multiply" may be losing some of its former power. Even though this myth may be only partially true, there are still strong cultural pressures to join the ranks of parenthood. While parenthood is a popular aspect of marriage, relatively little is known about parent satisfaction. Whether or not parents are concerned about a variety of things relevant to parenthood, some avenue of information should be available for parents seeking assistance and information. Information could be made available to answer the following questions: Whether children will weaken or strengthen the marital relationship? How will children affect the couples current lifestyle? When and how many children to have? What are the advantages and disadvantages of children?

To a certain extent, it does appear that increased concern is being expressed over family and parent educational programs. Family life education and marriage preparation courses are programs which provide useful information to potential and actual marital partners and parents. However, an adequate knowledge of parent satisfaction is not available to augment those programs. This planned research is an attempt to fill this knowledge gap. This empirical data should provide information to indicate whether couples follow demographic trends in the general

population or whether personal factors are significant in their parenting behaviour. When one stops to think about the comment "the family is forever changing" (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1977, Eshleman, 1978), it seems necessary to know more about parent satisfactions and dissatisfactions for several reasons.

With the recent emphasis on "family planning" (Christensen, 1964; LeMasters, 1970; Veevers, 1977; Chilman, 1977; Eshleman, 1978), potential parents are seeking information about whether or not they would probably be satisfied with parenthood. It would seem likely that satisfied parents would provide quite adequate child-rearing settings. Another probability is that parents coming from unsatisfactory environments will tend to create unfavorable child-rearing settings. According to Feldman (1971), differences in child-rearing attitudes between husband and wife appear to have a marked effect on marital happiness. He stresses the need for parent education prior to and shortly after couples have a child in order to minimize the influence of difference of opinion about child-rearing and its influence on marital satisfaction. This education program could suggest that couples evaluate their marriage and preparation for parenthood prior to having children.

From the clinical view, relevant information for family planning clinics, marriage and family counsellors could only enhance their functioning and wellbeing in helping mothers

and fathers in their parenting roles. Considering the prevalence of divorce in today's society one must also question if there is any relationship between parent dissatisfaction and divorce. When considering parents one must also have the wellbeing of children in mind. Parents may be well-satisfied with their lives but this does not necessarily mean that they are satisfactory parents.

Veevers (1977) provides an assessment of the Canadian family:

By and large the Canadian family is demonstrated to be a viable and a dominant social institution and to have remained so over the past decade. The changes that have occurred are not so much replacing the Canadian family with an alternative form as they are modifying certain aspects of the existing structure ... Declining fertility reflects not so much a rejection of parenthood roles as a preference for intensive involvement with fewer children (Veevers, 1977:63).

In summary, the Canadian family, with its marriage and parenting popularity and declining fertility rates, is a viable and lasting institution. This chapter has presented some demographic trends relevant to the area of study while identifying a number of important questions related to parent satisfaction. The area of study, correlates of parent satisfaction, has been identified as a major area in family research that has been ignored to a large extent. This planned research is a beginning attempt to fill this knowledge gap.

The following chapter, through a review of related literature, will isolate major variables found to be relevant to parent satisfaction. In addition, a theoretical

rationale and proposition will be formulated and specifically stated in hypotheses. Later chapters will describe the methodology designed to test these hypotheses, present the findings and state the study conclusions.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

A large number of studies of families have focused on marital happiness, marital satisfaction and marital adjustment (Burr, 1970; Luckey, 1970; Renne, 1970; Clayton, 1975; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Cherlin, 1977; Lee, 1977; Glenn and Weaver, 1978; Rollins and Feldman, 1978), but few studies account for the many facets of parent satisfaction (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Chilman, 1977; Beckman, 1978). Since parent satisfaction research is rather limited, one must draw on the indirectly related studies. In an attempt to move from a broad frame of reference to a narrow definitive scope of variables pertaining to parent satisfaction, a brief sequential review will follow.

Stolz found in a small, intensive study of parent behaviour that "probably the most noteworthy conclusion is that any act of a parent with his children is a result of an inter-play of pluralistic pressures in the total situation" (Stolz, 1967:304). A multi-faceted approach to study parent behaviour is supported.

Haavio-Mannila (1971) conducted a study of satisfaction derived from three major institutions in the life of an adult: family, work and leisure. The correlational analysis showed that satisfaction with family life was

more important to overall life satisfaction than satisfaction in the other life sectors studied.

Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) conducted a 1971 nationwide study in the United States based on a probability sample. This study, "The Quality of American Life", exploratory in nature, focused attention on the sense of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as self-perceived by respondents in many life domains. These domains included such areas as marriage, family life, health, neighbourhood, friendships, housework, job, life in the United States, city or country life, housing, employment, education and standard of living. Their findings indicate that satisfaction in marriage and in family life contributed more to overall life satisfaction than any other of the variables studied. Aside from variable effects of income levels on over-all life satisfaction, there appeared to be few clear-cut effects of environmental factors on marital satisfactions.

This nationwide study found the correlates of personal happiness and life satisfactions to be complex and suggests research and theory building in this area. The researchers comment that they wish they had investigated the correlates of parent satisfaction more thoroughly.

Chilman (1977) conducted an extensive study of self-perceived parent satisfaction and dissatisfaction in a metropolitan suburb of Milwaukee, the first of its kind to specifically focus on parent satisfaction. Her basic

proposition was that both (a) "external" factors (income, employment, housing, neighbourhood, friends and community resources) and (b) "internal" factors (demographic characteristics of the family, marital happiness, family health, family planning, support from relatives, sex role behaviours, family communications, developmental histories of parents, child-rearing beliefs and behaviours and parental self concepts) play equally important roles in the satisfaction of parents.

Her basic proposition was not supported since external variables outside the family tended not to influence the level of satisfaction. The only variables which could differentiate satisfied and dissatisfied parents were those within the family.

Basically, research has shown that the internal mechanisms within the family unit best explain degrees of parent satisfaction. Since this identification has been made, attention will focus on this in the area of study. While some consistency supports those internal mechanisms within the family unit as contributing to parent satisfaction, a degree of inconsistency exists when one attempts to reach a definite decision about the specific direction and influence of those many variables on parent satisfaction. An attempt will now be made to identify the major variables influencing parent satisfaction as well as indicating the prevalence of parent satisfaction.

A considerable number of studies relate the home, family and children as major sources of satisfaction. Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) indicate that most Americans look to the home for greatest happiness and satisfaction. One study makes a comparison of satisfied and dissatisfied couples in terms of children and companionship. Luckey (1970) found that children were given as one of the greatest and the only satisfaction for the marriage in the unsatisfied group. Companionship was given as a major source for the satisfied group.

Chilman (1977) found that about two-thirds of the mothers and one-half of the fathers agreed with the statement "parenthood is more satisfying than other work I do". These results were similar to those found by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) - 58 percent of their respondents rated themselves as "completely satisfied" with their marriage and another 25 percent "well satisfied".

The above studies show that a large number of parents perceive themselves as satisfied. In large measure, factors contributing to satisfaction or dissatisfaction rest within the family unit. While this is a complex area in itself, and no adequate model has been developed in the literature to clearly differentiate the varying levels of parent satisfaction, an attempt will be made to isolate major variables relevant to parent satisfaction.

Family of Origin

Prior experience largely plays a part in the decision in whether one were married, when to marry, whether one will have children and the desired number of children. Some of these earlier family experiences to be studied include childhood experiences, parental satisfaction levels and parental family size.

In distinguishing between satisfied and dissatisfied mothers, Chilman (1977) found that satisfied mothers saw their own childhood as happy and more felt the discipline used by their mothers was satisfactory. These are similar to findings from marital satisfaction studies which generally show that people who rate their childhood as mostly happy tend to give a similar rating to their marriages (Terman, 1938; Gurin, Veroff and Feld, 1960; Bowerman, 1957; Locke and Williamson, 1958).

Lott (1973), in a study of Rhode Island college students, furnishes evidence concerning the link between favourable perceptions of childhood experiences and positive attitudes towards motherhood. She found that women who rejected the traditional female role were more likely to give negative ratings to the ways in which their parents had treated them when they were children. Not only did adults who look forward to parenthood differ from less child oriented adults in remembering more nurturant mothers, but they also rated their fathers higher on the amount of care and trouble they remember them taking on their behalf.

Stolz (1967), in a study of parents in the San Francisco area, found that parents' values, attitudes and beliefs in respect to child care are influenced, for the most part, by their experiences in their own childhood and their relationships with their own parents. She also found convincing evidence that women of lower-social position and less educational background do not look back on their past experiences with feelings of satisfaction.

Campbell et al (1976) explored early experiences on a rather limited scope as they relate to marriage and family life. None of the areas explored, (mainly whether or not a child came from a broken home, whether he lived in an urban or rural community, degree of religiousity, and fathers' education), relate very significantly to satisfaction with marriage and family life.

In summary, research would tend to favour satisfactory childhood experiences as influencing positive parent satisfaction. While little direct research centres on the person's perception of childhood experiences and evaluations of parent satisfaction, the general trend is to support the argument that positive childhood evaluation will produce more satisfactory parent evaluation than negative evaluated childhood experiences.

Practically no information is available to relate the parent satisfaction level of an individual's parents with the individual's own satisfaction as a parent. All that can be said regarding this topic is based on speculation and assumptions.

Some researchers claim that children who lack positive parenting experiences have a greater tendency than others to become ineffective, dissatisfied parents (Anthony and Benedek, 1970; Spinetta and Rigler, 1972; Conger, 1973). From this the assumption can be made that individuals coming from satisfactory parent environments will probably be satisfied as parents themselves and provide quite adequate child-rearing settings. Conversely, individuals coming from dissatisfied parent environments will likely be dissatisfied with their roles as parents and create unfavorable child-rearing settings.

Clausen and Clausen (1973) note that several studies have addressed the question relating size of parental families and number of own children. In general, there is a positive correlation between the number of one's siblings and the number of one's own children. Duncan, Freedman, Coble and Stesinger (1965) note that women from large families tend to leave school at an early age, to marry earlier and to begin childbearing at a younger age than do those from small families. It has been hypothesized that offspring are more likely to have about the same number of children their parents did if they were particularly well satisfied with their childhood family. Conversely, if dissatisfied with their family of orientation, they may choose a family of different size. The relationship between number of siblings and number of own children was highest among individuals who rated their families of

orientation high in solidarity (Hendershot, 1969; Bumpass and Westoff, 1970).

Clausen and Clausen note the positive correlation between the number of one's siblings and the number of one's own children. A large factor in determining this positive relationship lies with the degree of childhood satisfaction. With the idea of childhood satisfaction in mind, some future consequences must stem from this important part of an individual's life.

Preparation for Parenthood

Rossi (1968) identified a number of roles that a parent may perform and indicates some of the uniqueness of these roles. She states that parental roles are unique in the preparation couples bring to them. She states there is (1) paucity of preparation (2) limited learning during the pregnancy (3) abruptness of transition and (4) lack of guidelines to successful parenthood (Rossi, 1968:35).

In explaining the above areas of concern, Rossi states that society trains women to be workers but not mothers. Most women facing the birth of their first child have had almost no experience with the role and no formal training in it. Since most women bearing their first child continue to work during pregnancy, there is little or no time to spend getting prepared. The abruptness of transition occurs when a new mother starts immediately on twenty-four hour duty. There are no guidelines available for "successful parenthood" beyond the advice of friends and parents.

The only training available is "on-the-job".

Clayton (1975) expresses criticism of Rossi's concern over the lack of preparation for the parental role by saying her concern is far too negative in focus. He adds that there is some time to prepare, at least 9 months, for the parenting role. He also argues that training and guidelines for successful parenting may not be entirely useful in that each child is distinct and parents should be able to develop their own style of parental behaviour. In summary, Clayton states "even though most societies provide little formal training in parenthood, the remarkable success of most parents is testimony to the commitment most parents have to their roles" (Clayton, 1975:426).

In a study of young parents, LeMasters (1957) found the actual process of becoming parents posed problems and stress they had not expected. It seemed that couples had received very inadequate preparation in the parent role. Later, in 1970, he found that modern parents are not well prepared for their role as mothers and fathers.

Chilman (1977) found that most parents relied on common sense when it came to knowledge of child-rearing. Others relied on parents, friends, magazines and books. (Similar information sources are reported by Rossi, 1968). Only a low percentage of parents were dissatisfied with the amount of information available.

In short, people become parents with a great deal of naivete regarding what is involved in such roles and they

do so with little formal training or preparation. At the local level concern is being expressed over this lack of preparation. The Honourable Minister of Education, Lynn Verge, appearing October 18, 1979, on CBC's "The Harris Report", stressed, in assessing the education system, that the Newfoundland education system inadequately prepares young people with the social skills to function in marriage, family life and parenthood. Among other areas of future changes in the education system, emphasis will have to be placed on programs designed to prepare students for general functioning and self-awareness in family life. However, since parents rely heavily on common sense, this may be an indication that most parents want to develop their own style of parental behaviour. In terms of preparation, this planned research will explore the relationship between the knowledge of and readiness for parenthood and parent satisfaction levels.

Age at Marriage

Lee (1977) states a commonly held empirically generalization: "People who marry at relatively early ages are exposed to a substantially higher risk of marital instability than are people who marry later in life". He cautions against such generalizations by claiming an inverse relationship between age at marriage and the probability of divorce can be clarified by three explanations. First, other variables such as low parental marital satisfaction,

poor relations with parents, minimal interest in education, premarital pregnancy, short premarital acquaintance, and low socio-economic background are not only related to age at marriage but also marital instability.

The second explanation claims that people who marry young are unprepared in emotional, psychological and instrumental ways for mate selection and for adequate marital roles. A third explanation takes the form of exchange theory. In this case individuals who marry at young ages are cognizant of their relatively high chances for remarriage in case of divorce. The alternatives, other than marriage, may be more attractive to young people and consequently choose this approach. In any event Lee's findings were not strong enough to indicate any real positive relationship with age and divorce.

Glenn (1978), in a review of several studies on marital happiness and satisfaction, found a general consensus on the effects of family income, husband's occupational level, age at marriage and frequency of church attendance on the variations in marital happiness. Findings of his own research indicate no strong positive relationship of occupation or income to marital happiness of husbands or wives and no association with age of marriage and marital success. While both the research of Lee and Glenn is consistent in that they find no association between age of marriage and marital success, weighted evidence from numerous studies (summarized by Glenn) support a positive relationship.

Chilman (1973) in a discussion of poverty and family planning in the United States summarizes findings of Alvin Schorr (1966). Early age at marriage, early age of mother at birth of first child, large family size, children born more closely together, and a greater span of years of childbearing are behaviours more likely to occur for low-income families and are also one factor in the continuing poverty of many low-income families. Burchinal (1963) found that those who marry before age twenty-two or thereabouts are more likely than those who marry later to rate their marriage as unhappy by the time they have reached middle age.

Russo and Brackbill (1973) found women who marry younger also have a higher total number of children, even when duration of marriage is controlled. Some antecedent variables associated with early marriage include premarital pregnancy, socio-economic status, race, adolescents' personal adjustment, parental relations and education. As previously discussed childhood experiences and parental relations seem to largely affect both age of marriage and satisfaction levels.

While literature tends to support the notion that young marriages are often positively related to marital instability, dissolution and dissatisfaction, there has been exploration of the relationship between young marriages and parent satisfaction. Since the evidence tends to weigh

heavily in favour of positive relationships, an inference can be made that young marriages will tend to be associated with parent dissatisfaction. Available research focusing on these variables is non-existent.

Age at First Parenthood

Closely linked with the age of marriage is the age of first parenthood. Premarital pregnancy, as earlier indicated, is closely associated with early marriage. Quite often first parenthood may precede marriage. Estimates for the number of marriages in which the bride was pregnant run in the range of 30%-50% (Russo and Brackbill, 1973). Consequently, a large number of first children will either arrive prior to or shortly after marriage.

Direct research on age of first parenthood and satisfaction levels is non-existent. Repeated studies have focused on stages in the life cycle which relate to satisfaction levels. (Rollins and Feldman, 1970; Renne, 1970, Burr, 1970; Glenn, 1975; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Chilman, 1977). Almost all of the studies show an initial decrease in marital satisfaction after the birth of the first child. However, these studies fail to relate the birth of the first child to the age of the parent. Probably the generalization holds true regardless of the parents' age. A test of this generalization should produce interesting results. A point to note, in those types of studies, is that stages in the family life cycle are largely determined by the presence of children and their age levels.

{ Some data show marital satisfaction either reaching a plateau after the birth of the first child or declining (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Pineo, 1961; Luckey, 1966). Other studies provide findings indicating marital satisfaction being curvilinear: high among young couples, declining after the birth of the first child through the launching stage, and then increasing during the post-parental stage (Rollins and Feldman, 1970; Burr, 1970; Glenn, 1975; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976).

Chilman (1977) did not explore the relationship between age of first parenthood and satisfaction. She did not find any correlation between age and parent satisfaction, however the large portion of parents under study were in the age group of 30-45, so parents may have not been included in her comparisons.

Surprisingly, considerable attention has been given to age of marriage and little to age of first parenthood and how this relates to overall marital and parental satisfaction. In keeping with the consensus of findings on age of marriage and satisfaction levels, it can also be inferred that age of first parenthood will also influence satisfaction.

Value of Children

Recent research has attempted to provide new and important levels of understanding of the reasons for having children and the reasons for stopping after a certain number of children. These approaches focus on the needs of parents

that are fulfilled by children (satisfactions) balanced against the costs entailed in having children. (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973). These authors state that satisfactions and costs should be broadly defined, to include aspects that might be classified as social, psychological and economic. A similar view is held by Campbell et al (1976) who suggest that, in assessing overall satisfaction with his marriage, the individual takes into account the rewards of his marriage life (the pleasure of some children) as well as its costs and arrives at a sum of both experiences.

In studying the value of children to parents (satisfactions balanced against costs), Fawcett and Arnold (1973) point out some key questions which can be answered using this approach: Which parents at what stages of the life cycle give consideration to the consequences of having children? What characteristics of children are related to number and timing of births? How are parents' expectations about children affected by experiences with children already born? While these researchers did not directly study parent satisfaction in terms of rewards and costs of children, a similar approach can adequately deal with the matter.

Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) proposed a model containing five broad sets of variables to study the satisfactions and costs of children: (1) the value of children; (2) alternative sources of the value; (3) costs; (4) barriers and (5) facilitators. Value of children refers to the functions

they serve or the needs they fulfill for parents. Alternatives pertain to other avenues, besides children for fulfilling a value. Costs refers to what must be lost or sacrificed to obtain a value in any particular way. Barriers and facilitators refer to the factors that make it more difficult or easier, to realize the particular value by having children. From this model, the value of children has been developed in more detail and encompasses nine categories:

- (1) Adult status and social identity.
- (2) Expansion of the self, tie to a large entity, "immortality".
- (3) Morality: religion; altruism; good of the group; norms regarding sexuality, impulsivity, virtue.
- (4) Primary group ties, affection.
- (5) Stimulation, novelty, fun.
- (6) Achievement, competence, creativity.
- (7) Power, influence, effectance.
- (8) Social comparison, competition.
- (9) Economic utility.

Some of the above values will become clearly evident when the major rewards or satisfactions of children are compared with the costs and dissatisfactions. Later reference will be made to this model and some further adaptations and extensions will be forthcoming after a list of specific satisfactions and costs of children are outlined.

Gurin et al (1960) identify two broad categories of gratifications and distress: (1) economic and material considerations and (2) central life relationships - marriage, children and family. In category one, emphasis was placed on comfort, adequacy and limited aspirations rather than luxury. Problems in this area include debts, bills, and inadequate housing. In category two, over half of respondents referred to this area when talking about things that gave them happiness in life. When a person tends to be happy in these relationships, he also tends to be happy generally.

Satisfactions and Rewards of Children

In reviewing the literature on the value of children, a number of researchers have identified several common satisfactions or rewards of children as perceived by parents. These major categories of rewards will be presented along with the reference sources identified with the category.

- Parent-child relationship, the love, companionship and fun inherent in the relationship (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Thompson, 1974; Arnold et al, 1975; Chilman, 1977; Beckman, 1978; Hoffman and Manis, 1979).
- Watching children grow and develop (Arnold et al, 1975; Chilman, 1977; Beckman, 1978; Hoffman and Manis, 1979).

- Opportunity to teach and learn from them (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Beckman, 1978).
- Stimulation and fun (Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Hoffman and Manis, 1979).
- Fulfillment, either biological or fulfillment of the female role; opportunity to beget and raise a child; to feel needed and useful (Thompson, 1974; Arnold et al, 1975; Kagan, 1977; Beckman, 1978; Hoffman and Manis, 1979).
- Beneficial to husband and wife relationship - creating a stronger bond between husband and wife (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Kagan, 1977; Hoffman and Manis, 1979).
- Little emphasis on children's achievements such as self-fulfillment, general enjoyment, hope for the future, passing on the family name (Chilman, 1977).

It appears that personal fulfillment, love and companionship were seen as primary satisfactions from parenthood. In her study of women, Beckman (1978) found that factors involving affectional relations with children are probably the most salient satisfactions of parenthood for women. These factors were also evident in the decision to have additional children.

Dissatisfactions and Costs of Children

Similarly, as with the major rewards of children,

researchers have identified several dissatisfactions or costs of children as perceived by parents. These major categories will be presented along with the reference sources..

- Restrictions placed on one's freedom, opportunity, privacy or mobility (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Campbell, Converse and Rodgers, 1976; Chilman, 1977; Beckman, 1978; Glenn, 1978).
- Loss of independence (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Chilman, 1977; Glenn, 1978).
- Children "tie you down" and limit alternative activities to an undesirable extent, interference with career (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Beckman, 1978).
- Emotional strain and anxiety (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Clayton, 1975; Campbell et al, 1976).
- Economic costs (Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Clayton, 1975; Arnold et al, 1975; Campbell et al, 1976).
- Worry regarding social problems or the child's health and development (Clayton, 1975; Arnold et al, 1975; Beckman, 1978).
- Great responsibility involved (Clayton, 1975; Arnold et al, 1975; Beckman, 1978).

Evidence reaches a general consensus that there are considerable physical, mental and economic costs involved with parenthood. Some of the negative influences of children on marital satisfaction grow, to a large extent, out of interference with the companionship, intimate interaction of the spouses and restrictions on freedom to choose other alternatives. Beckman (1978) found that restrictions of other activities and roles, including a career, are the most salient costs of parenthood among employed women. These factors were also considered in the decision for additional children.

Some of the above dimensions appear as satisfactions and costs and they may operate in opposing directions. For example, children often bring husband and wife closer together, while at the same time they are a source of tension between husband and wife. Children are viewed as functional for satisfying certain needs of couples but there are in some cases alternative sources of satisfactions. However, society has not made those alternative sources of satisfactions as readily available as parenthood.

Townes et al (1977) found that birth planning decisions appear to be a rational process in which couples weigh the relative costs and benefits of having children and then behave in a way that will bring about maximum benefits to themselves. Couples become, or seek to become, pregnant if having a child is expected to aid in the achievement of

significant values. Conversely, they do not become, or seek to become, pregnant if having a child is expected to have a negative influence on achievement of those values.

Townes et al also found six values which distinguished couples who do and do not become pregnant. For women, they were the affiliative value of the child to the mother, the effect of the child upon women's opportunity for growth and maturity, and the impact of the child upon women's roles in the marriage. For men their perceptions of the impact of a child upon husband-wife relationships, the relationships among existing children, and upon the couples lifestyle were the major motivations for and deterrents to further childbearing.

Information on the value of children reveals that costs and benefits are present, often in conflict, in parenthood. When parents balance those costs and benefits they arrive at a sum total of parent satisfaction. Perceived costs and satisfactions are also considered by couples in their decision for additional children. Given the large number of couples who have, or seek to have, children, it appears the anticipated satisfactions outweigh the anticipated costs. However, the actual costs and satisfactions of the first experience may play a large factor in future childbearing.

Conclusion

After reviewing the related literature, it appears that no adequate model has been yet proposed to account for

parent satisfaction. Since so little attention has centred on parent satisfaction, it is understandable that such a model does not exist.

In this review an attempt has been made to find and explore variables that are interrelated and subject to earlier research. Some of the areas studied include family of origin (childhood satisfaction, parental satisfaction levels and number of siblings), preparation for parenthood, age of marriage, age of first parenthood and the value of children. Some of those variables occur before the others and it may be contended that the influence of these will result in an end product of parent satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The present research will explore the variables previously identified and attempt to assess their impact on parent satisfaction in terms of Newfoundland society. The following chapter will elaborate on a theoretical orientation, state a theoretical proposition to be specifically defined in terms of several hypotheses.

Chapter 3

Theoretical Rationale and Hypotheses

Parent satisfaction, as a concept, appears to consist of several interrelated variables. However, the review of the literature shows that few attempts have been made to combine those variables into theoretical orientations to explain parent satisfaction. Before proceeding to develop our own theoretical orientation, it is necessary to explain some of the routine behaviour that is carried on by individuals in society.

In chapter one, statistics showed that approximately ninety percent of adults will marry at some time during their lifetime. It was further shown that approximately ninety percent of married adults will have children. From this it may be suggested that individuals choose behaviour that is rewarding and beneficial to them (in this case, getting married and having children). However, this is not done without some costs or sacrifices being incurred in making this choice.

Prior to marriage, single individuals sought out or were attracted to other individuals. This attraction was brought on by the weighing of the good traits against the negative traits and arriving at a decision. If the positive aspects outweighed the negative aspects, frequently dating

behaviour resulted from this attraction but both partners had to modify earlier behaviour. For example, in order to spend some time together both partners had to change their earlier behaviour. In an attempt to maintain this dating behaviour, sacrifices were made but, in addition, benefits were received from this relationship. If individuals were satisfied with the dating relationship (that is, the positive aspects outweighed the negative aspects of such a relationship), it frequently continued. In other words, if the advantages of the relationship outnumbered the costs incurred, it was likely that the relationship was maintained. Conversely, if individuals were discontent or dissatisfied with the relationship according to their expectations, it terminated and they likely sought alternative partners (in this case the costs incurred would outnumber the advantages obtained from the relationship).

In any event, tradeoffs are ever present in human interaction. Eshleman (1978) explains this bargaining as the trade off that is present in the dating relationship:

In dating, for example, the male may consider sexual intercourse as a desired goal and highly valued reward. To achieve this reward he may have to offer in exchange flattery (my how beautiful you look tonight), commitment (you are the only one I love), goods (I thought you might enjoy these flowers), and services (let me get you a drink) (Eshleman, 1978:348).

Following the rational approach as described above, it becomes clear that this type of exchange is ever present in human interactions.

A similar parallel can be applied to the choice individuals make regarding the decision to marry. The actual decision of persons A and B to marry is made along several lines of behaviour in terms of weighing the pros and cons together and arriving at the decided choice according to their needs and expectations. Research has shown that these principles can be applied to fertility behaviour in the decision to have children. Townes et al (1977) found that birth planning decisions appear to be a rational process in which couples weigh the relative costs and benefits of having children and then behave in a way that will bring about the maximum benefits to themselves.

In summary, human behaviour, constantly involving decision making situations, is based on a rational choice using available information. Behavioural outcomes, whether they be dating, marriage, parenting, education or employment, are based on exploring alternative sources of activities in meeting needs or expectations. Basically, what is being said here is that human behaviour can be explained in terms of exchanges - rewards, costs and outcomes (Homans, 1961).

As one application of what has been said above, it may be suggested that parent satisfaction can best be explained using the social exchange theory and concepts. Some recent research (Fawcett, 1972; Fawcett and Arnold, 1973; Arnold et al, 1975; Hoffman, 1972; Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973; Hoffman and Manis, 1979) has focused on the value of

children to parents. These approaches focused on the needs of parents that are fulfilled by children (satisfactions) balanced against the costs entailed in having children.

Hoffman and Hoffman (1972) recommend that these satisfactions and costs of children should be broadly defined to include aspects that might be classified as social, psychological and economic.

Some of the basic ideas of social exchange theories have a long history in the sociology of the family. However, general theories of social exchange were introduced by Thibaut and Kelly (1959), Homans (1961), Blau (1964) and have been recently updated by Simpson (1972), Ekeh (1974), and Heath (1976). More specifically, other authors have related social exchange concepts to familiar behaviour (Edwards, 1979; Brindley and Tavormina, 1978).

Social exchange theory has followed two differing schools of thought best represented by Homans and Blau (Eshleman, 1978). Homans, the recognized initiator of social exchange theory, represents a perspective consistent with that of behavioural psychologists who believe in psychological reductionism and reinforcement where the focus is on actual behaviour that is rewarded or punished by the behaviour of other persons (Eshleman, 1978:61). It is expected that in exchange relationships the rewards will be proportional to the costs. Originating from learning theory, Homans principles seek to recognize that people reward and punish each other so that in interaction they

behave toward each other just as any animal behaves toward any source of rewards and punishments.

Blau differs considerably from Homans and represents a perspective consistent with that of the symbolic interactionist. That is, not all exchange is explained in terms of actual behaviour of individuals. The exchange is more subjective and interpretative. While humans want rewards, the choices and decisions are limited by social influences such as friends or kin (Eshleman, 1978:61).

It is not the intention of this thesis to make broad comparative summaries of social exchange theorists, as there is considerable consensus concerning major components and assumptions (Secord and Backman, 1964; Simpson, 1972; Burns, 1973; Ekeh, 1974; Heath, 1976).

Secord and Beckman (1964) describe the exchange positions of Thibaut and Kelly (1959) and Homans (1961), and summarize the following four concepts which are basic to exchange theory: reward, cost, outcome and comparison level. Reward is defined as any activity on the part of one person that contributes to the gratification of another person's needs. Costs of engaging in any activity not only include "punishment" incurred in carrying out that activity such as fatigue or anxiety, but also include the value of rewards foregone by engaging in this activity rather than alternative activities. The term outcome refers to rewards less costs. If the outcome of an interaction is positive, it may be said to yield a profit; it is negative if a loss

occurs. Comparison level, first introduced by Thibaut and Kelly (1959), provides a set of standards against which people can evaluate the anticipated outcomes. This set of standards or comparison level is defined as:

Comparison Level (CL) is a standard by which a person evaluates the rewards and costs of a given relationship in terms of what he feels he deserves. Relationships the outcomes of which fall above CL would be relatively satisfying and attractive to the member; those outcomes which fall below CL would be relatively unsatisfying and unattractive (Thibaut and Kelly, 1959:24).

Burns (1973) explains the basic assumptions of social exchange theory: (1) Social behaviour can be explained in terms of rewards where rewards are goods or services, tangible or intangible, that satisfy a person's needs or goals. (2) Individuals attempt to maximize rewards and minimize losses or punishments. (3) Social interaction results from the fact that others control valuables or necessities and can therefore reward a person. In order to induce another to reward him, a person has to provide rewards to the other in return. (4) Social interaction is thus viewed as an exchange of mutually rewarding activities in which the receipt of a needed valuable (good or service) is contingent on the supply of a favor in return (usually immediate).

According to the social exchange theory, persons are attracted to one another and sustain that attraction on the basis of rewards offered to one another. The kinds of rewards may vary from economic security to a sense of being understood, appreciated and made to feel important by

someone else. In other words, both material and emotional rewards may enter the picture in social relationships. At the same time, the bonds formed between persons also involve costs. If costs appears to outweigh benefits or if the margin of profit (rewards less costs) is extremely minimal, the value of the relationship may be called into question by the person on the losing end (Scanzoni and Scanzoni, 1976).

Generally, the concepts and components of social exchange theory can be applied to the parenting relationship. In applying this to the parenting relationship, it can be said that couples enter parenthood with some expectation of receiving certain rewards and this relationship will be maintained as long as the level is maintained; certain maximum levels of costs will be present. Some of the rewards of parenting such as love, companionship, fun, watching children grow and develop and personal fulfillment, appear to outweigh some of the costs incurred such as restrictions placed on one's freedom, opportunity, privacy or mobility, loss of independence, limiting of alternatives, worry and economic costs. A fairly high margin of profit appears to be present in most parenting relationships since most relationships are maintained.

Some researchers have argued that parenthood is not temporary and that it lasts for life (Rossi, 1968; Lott, 1973). With this mind, it can be seen that the parenting experience is not reversible. People can marry and simply

terminate the relationship through separation or divorce. However, in the parenting relationship events are more complicated. The couple may indeed decide to separate or divorce but the question of what happens to the children always arises. A significant number of divorce settlements have to contend with this very crucial question. While not contradicting the argument concerning the rewards and costs of children, it could be argued that some marital relationships are maintained because couples are bound into the relationship by the very presence of children.

In summary, parenting must generally be a rewarding situation as indicated by the prevalence of individuals who initially become parents and also by the large number who seek to have more than one child. It can then be said that the anticipated rewards appear to outweigh the actual costs involved. It can be assumed that the more profit (rewards less costs) couples receive from parenting, the more satisfied they will be as parents. Conversely, the less profit received from the parenting roles, the less satisfied couples will be as parents.

PROPOSITION AND HYPOTHESES

Social exchange theory describes human behaviour in terms of exchanges involving rewards, costs and outcomes (Homans, 1961). More specifically, it has been suggested that the social exchange orientation, can be applied to parent satisfaction. It should be noted that there is no

clear empirical measure of social exchange concepts. However, some researchers have tested social exchange concepts and propositions by defining variables in terms of costs, rewards and outcomes (Edwards, 1969; Nye and McLaughlin, 1974; Eshleman, 1978; Brindley and Tavormina, 1978). It is the intentions of this thesis to follow a similar approach. Hoffman and Hoffman (1973) recommend that the costs and rewards of children should be broadly defined to include social, psychological and economic aspects. Any reference to costs and rewards used in this thesis follows this broad definition.

Following the social exchange orientation, it is suggested that parents perceive and evaluate parenthood in terms of costs and rewards. This evaluation of parenthood serves to indicate the level of parent satisfaction. More specifically, it is suggested that parent satisfaction can be explained in terms of how prepared one is for parenthood and the age of parenthood. To a large extent, both the preparation for parenthood and the age of parenthood are determined through a learning process beginning with factors in childhood, early marriage and other experiences.

Three general propositions are generated following this approach. These propositions will be further defined when the specific variables are identified and the hypotheses are stated.

Proposition one states "factors in the family of origin and early marriage will exert a significant effect on parent preparation". This general proposition is not measurable but can be further defined. Good indicators of experiences in the family of origin which influence the preparation for parenthood would include the variables of satisfaction level of an individual's parents, childhood satisfaction and the number of siblings.

The satisfaction level of one's parents, when viewed in terms of costs and rewards, should provide a good model to indicate the extent of one's preparation for parenthood. The degree of childhood satisfaction should also determine how ready one is to enter parenthood. For example, a person who rates himself low on childhood satisfaction may not rate himself as being very ready or prepared for parenthood. In addition, it is maintained that the number of siblings will also affect the preparation for parenthood. For example, individuals who have a large number of siblings will likely have considerable experience in caring for and looking after children. With this the case, it can be expected that they would be well prepared for parenthood.

Good indicators of experiences in early marriage that influence parent preparation include the actual age of marriage and the perceived value of children to individuals at the time of marriage. For example, the costs of a young marriage may be greater than the rewards. In application, the age of marriage can be assessed according to rewards

and costs which, in time, influence the preparation for parenthood.

The value of children to individuals at the time of marriage has been defined using costs and rewards. Where individuals have a high value of children (perceived rewards exceeds perceived costs), it can be expected they would be more prepared for parenthood than where individuals have a low value of children.

Evolving from this general proposition and specific variables are the following hypotheses:

1. Individuals who rate their own parents high on parent satisfaction will more likely be more prepared for parenthood than will individuals who rate their own parents low on parent satisfaction.
2. Individuals who rate themselves high on childhood satisfaction will more likely be more prepared for parenthood than will individuals who rate themselves low on childhood satisfaction.
3. Individuals with a large number of siblings will more likely rate themselves as more prepared for parenthood than individuals with a small number of siblings.
4. Individuals who marry at a young age will more likely rate themselves as less prepared for parenthood than will individuals who marry at an older age.
5. Individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage will more likely rate themselves as more prepared for parenthood than will individuals who have a low value of children.

Proposition two states "factors in the family of origin and early marriage will exert a significant effect on the age of parenthood". The same five variables - satisfaction level of an individual's parents, childhood

satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and the value of children - should also be indicative of the age of parenthood.

For example, all the family of origin variables, when evaluated according to costs and rewards, should serve to indicate the actual age of parenthood. More specifically, an individual who was highly satisfied as a child may wish to start his own family early and consequently, become a parent at a young age.

A common assumption associates early parenthood with early marriage. In this regard, little explanation is necessary to suggest the strong relationship between those two variables. It is maintained that the value of children is a strong determinant of the age of parenthood. It can be expected that individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage (perceived rewards exceeds perceived costs) will likely enter parenthood at a younger age than those individuals who have a low value of children.

From this proposition, defined according to the five specific variables, the following hypotheses have been developed:

6. Individuals who rate their own parents low on parent satisfaction will more likely become parents at a younger age than individuals who rate their own parents high on parent satisfaction.
7. Individuals who rate themselves high on childhood satisfaction will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals who rate themselves low on childhood satisfaction.

8. Individuals with a large number of siblings will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals with a small number of siblings.
9. Individuals who marry at a young age will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals who marry at an older age.
10. Individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals who have a low value of children.

Proposition three states "factors in the family of origin, early marriage and early parenthood will exert a significant effect on parent satisfaction". This general proposition is not measurable but can be further defined utilizing the variables that compose proposition one and proposition two. It has been suggested that parent satisfaction can be explained in terms of how prepared one is for parenthood and the actual age of parenthood. The earlier propositions and hypotheses were proposed to determine the extent of the effect of five specific variables on the variables of parent preparation and the age of parenthood.

Proposition three has been generated to determine the effect that those earlier defined variables exert on parent satisfaction. From this proposition, the following hypotheses have been developed:

11. Individuals who rate their own parents low on parent satisfaction will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals who rate their own parents high on parent satisfaction.

12. Individuals rating themselves high on childhood satisfaction will more likely rate themselves higher on parent satisfaction than will individuals who rate themselves low on childhood satisfaction.
13. Individuals with a large number of siblings will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals with a small number of siblings.
14. Individuals who marry at a young age will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals who marry at an older age.
15. Individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage will more likely rate themselves higher on parent satisfaction than will individuals who have a low value of children.
16. Individuals who rate themselves as more prepared for parenthood will more likely rate themselves higher on parent satisfaction than will individuals who rate themselves as less prepared for parenthood.
17. Individuals who become parents at an older age will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals who become parents at a younger age.

As a consequence of the predictions of the variables identified under the three general research propositions, a model of parent satisfaction has been proposed. Figure I presents this model in diagrammatic form.

The parent satisfaction model has to be viewed in terms of a time continuum, consisting of three time frames. This model suggests that variables in each time frame precede those in later time frames. The five variables - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and value of children - represent time one (T1). These five variables in T1 occur before

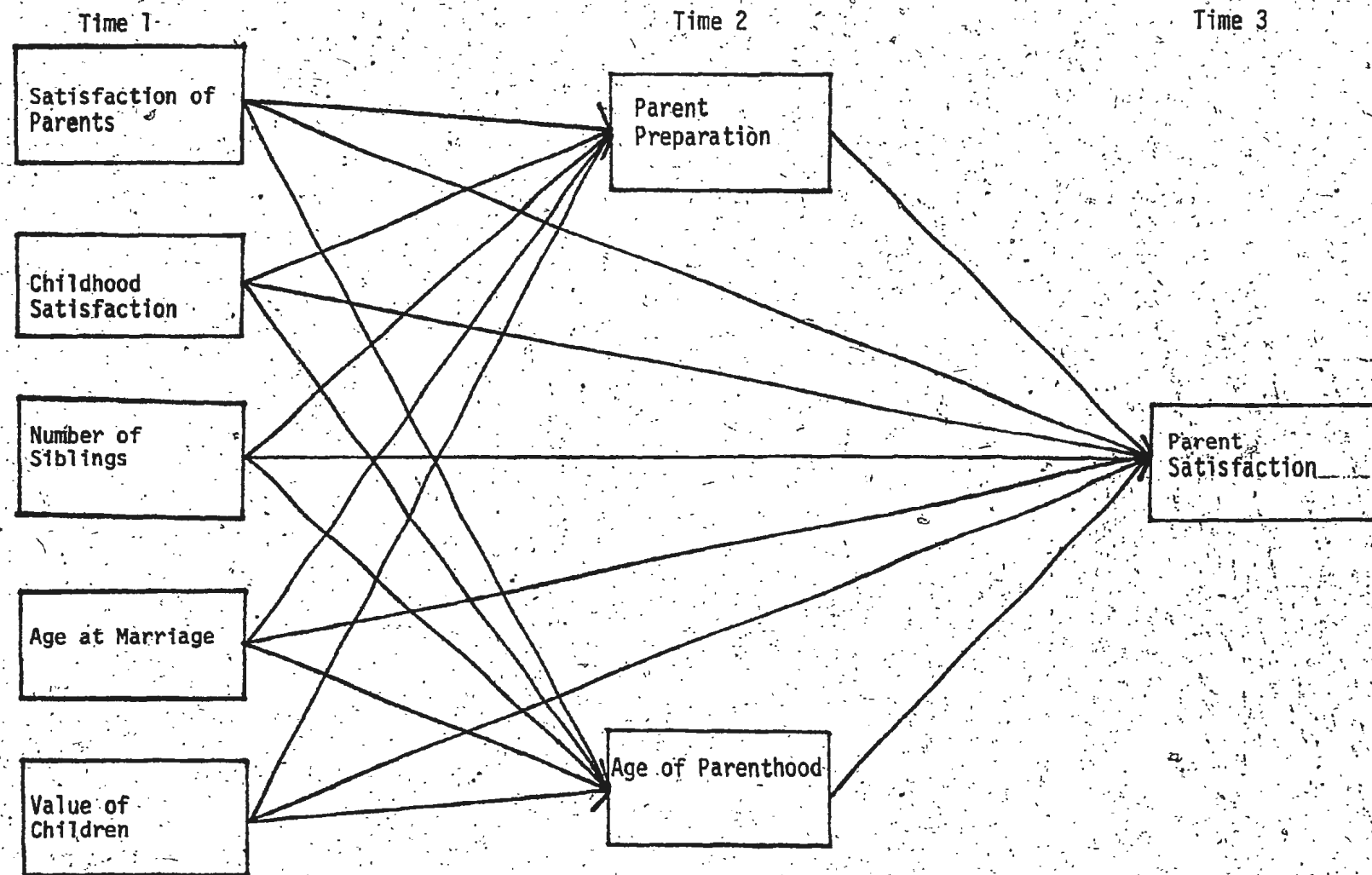


Figure 1
Proposed Model of Parent Satisfaction

and influence the two variables in time two (T2), parent preparation and age of parenthood. Parent satisfaction in time three (T3) occurs after and is influenced by the variables in T1 and T2.

The above model is a general model of parent satisfaction. Literature supports male and female differences in family life and the parenting roles (Bernard, 1972; Lowenthal et al, 1974; Chilman, 1979). These researchers suggest that males and females perceive family and parenting experiences quite differently. This evidence may suggest that potential male and female differences will exist in this planned research. Consequently, comparisons will be made along male-female lines.

In total seventeen hypotheses will be examined to validate the proposed parent satisfaction model and to test the three research propositions. Hypotheses 1-5 deal with variables related to parent preparation and serve to test proposition one. Hypotheses 6-10 are related to the age of first parenthood and test proposition two. Hypotheses 11-17 are relevant to parent satisfaction and will test proposition three. The following chapter describes the methodology used to test these hypotheses.

Chapter 4

Methodology

This chapter will outline the sampling procedures, the research instrument and the method of data collection. The mode of analysis as well as the measurement of variables will also be described.

The Sample

The population of interest in this study is all those residents of metropolitan St. John's. This area consists of the City of St. John's and several rural, smaller communities infringing upon the urban core. Consequently, this area consists of a mixture of urban and rural residents which should be representative of the Newfoundland population.

The most complete, and the most readily accessible, listing of this population is the telephone directory. Unlike rural Newfoundland, most city households are single family dwellings or apartments, and almost every family unit has a telephone. There are 40,000 listings in the St. John's telephone directory. Many of those listings are for businesses, and many more are non-family residences.

The aim was to begin with a large sample that would provide 100 two-parent families with a child or children of school age currently at home. Considering the prevalence

of husband-wife families with children, it was assumed little difficulty would be experienced in obtaining parents to participate in the study.

Therefore, the procedure was to generate a large selection of random numbers to allow for non-eligible phone numbers. A series of one thousand random numbers (using a Texas Instruments random number generator) was generated as a way of sampling from this population list. Once the numbers had been randomly generated, the telephone directory was used to determine the telephone numbers that correspond to the numbers drawn (for example, if a random number of 200 was generated, the 200th listing in the telephone directory was selected for the sample). This procedure was followed until 1000 names, addresses and telephone numbers had been recorded.

A limitation in using a telephone directory is that it is only published once a year. Consequently, people moving into the area or moving within the area may not have a telephone listing. Also, parents with no telephone listing or having an unlisted number would not have the opportunity of being included in the study. Generally, the completeness and accessibility of the directory overcomes the above limitations.

This sample has been restricted by requiring that the sample consist of parents and children, currently at home, that are of school age. This requirement was necessary to obtain information relevant to parent satisfaction from a

group with high saliency. Consequently, each telephone listing, selected through the procedure described above, was given a screening call to determine whether or not that listing met the criteria for eligibility (that is, whether there was a child of school age living with both parents).

The caller briefly explained the nature and the purpose of the research project (see Appendix B). Next the caller asked two questions to determine eligibility (whether they had school age children at home and whether both parents were living together). If both questions were answered in the affirmative, the caller invited the respondent to participate in the study and explained the research instrument. If an agreement was reached an appointment was arranged to complete the questionnaire through a personal interview with both husband and wife concurrently but separately.

The sampling procedure took place in August, 1979, screening calls commenced in September and data collection commenced in mid-September and terminated October 26, 1979, six weeks later, when the desired number of 100 couples had been interviewed. The following is a breakdown of the one thousand telephone numbers selected for the sample: contact was made with 700 listings; 420 were immediately not eligible to participate (according to the research criteria); 105 refused to participate in the study (whether or not they were eligible); 75 were awaiting calls back; 100 resulted in completed interviews; and 300 had not been reached for various reasons (changed telephone numbers, changed

addresses, no answer, number not called since sample number reached). This gave a response rate of 49 percent.

The Research Instrument

After the review of relevant literature, a research instrument, in the form of a questionnaire, was devised. A questionnaire, developed and administered in Milwaukee by Chilman (1977), provided valuable information as did the questionnaire used by Fawcett et al. (1975). Portions of each questionnaire were modified to suit the Newfoundland population. A standardized research questionnaire was developed, including these, to be administered to both husband and wife separately but concurrently during a personal interview. Due to the personal nature of some of the questions, a personal interview method of data collection was considered more appropriate since it enables the concerns and questions of the respondents to be handled more effectively.

The overall length of the research instrument was 21 pages. It should be noted that this study was a small segment of a much larger study covering the effects of fertility planning on marital and parental satisfaction. Consequently, the questionnaire was rather lengthy. Likert-type answer categories were used for the questions.

In compiling the research instrument, considerable thought was put into question wording, ordering and length (see Appendix A). The overall layout of the instrument was

also considered important, so as to give visual representation to the desired response flow. The key dependent variables were placed first in the questionnaire, so as to reduce potential instrument bias. The questions were then structured along a time continuum, from family of origin of the respondent, to his/her early marriage and parenthood, to the present time.

Pretesting took place in July with six couples being interviewed. Any questions found to be misleading or ambiguous were modified into the final form as in the questionnaire. It took approximately 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

After being designed, pretested and modified, the research instrument was in final form. A total of 20 interviewers were selected, through a personal interview, to administer the research instrument. These interviewers were given a two-session training course, covering the goals of the research, the format of the interview process, and the research instrument in some detail. Oaths of confidentiality were signed by all interviewers. Several interviewers had to drop out mainly because of other time commitments but replacement interviewers were selected and trained.

When the 100 couples were interviewed, (representing 200 cases), the information was coded and after keypunching was ready for analysis. Data analysis was done through the

use of the facilities of Memorial University Computer Services. Analytical procedures consisted of limited use of means and standard deviations but relied more heavily on the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and mainly on Multiple Regression Analysis presented in the form of Path Analysis.

The correlation matrix, obtained through the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, shows the relationship between all possible pairs of variables. This indicates the degree to which variation or change in one variable is related to a variation or change in another. Basically, the matrix summarizes the strength of association between any pair of variables included in this study (see Appendix D).

For the context of analysis of this study, multiple regression is used to describe the entire structure of linkages between independent and dependent variables that were formulated into a theoretical model (refer to chapter 3 for this model). Simply stated, multiple regression is a general statistical technique through which one can analyze the relationship between a dependent variable and a set of independent variables (Nie, et al, 1975: 321). In this sense, the effects and the magnitude of the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables is shown.

Applying multiple regression analysis to the theoretical model of parent satisfaction provides for the use of path analysis. Path analysis, through a causal model,

specifies an ordering among the variables that reflect a presumed structure of cause-effect linkages. The regression analysis determines the magnitude of direct and indirect influence that each of the variables indicated in the model has on the other variables that follow in the presumed causal order. Each arrow in the model represents a presumed causal linkage or path of causal influence, the strength of each path is indicated through regression techniques (Nie, et al, 1975:322). Analytical comparisons were made along male-female lines.

Measurement of Variables

As indicated before, Likert type answer categories were used for most variables in the study. Variables measured through this system included satisfaction of respondents and childhood satisfaction. Response categories to those variables were as follows: (1) very satisfied (2) satisfied (3) somewhat satisfied (4) dissatisfied (5) very dissatisfied. Ordinarily this system yields a scoring range of 1-5, ranging from high to low score.

Variables such as the number of siblings, age of marriage and age of first parenthood were simply measured by the actual response given on the research instrument. Other variables, such as the value of children to parents at the time of marriage (referred to as the value of children), parent preparation and parent satisfaction, were measured through a combination of two or more variables using Likert type answer categories.

Parent preparation is a variable composed of a combination of three variables:

When you first became a parent, how knowledgeable would you say you were about what it takes to be a successful parent?

Very Knowledgeable	Knowledgeable	Somewhat Knowledgeable	Not Very Knowledgeable	Not at all Knowledgeable
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How ready for parenthood did you feel you were?

Very Ready	Ready	Somewhat Ready	Not Very Ready	Not At All Ready
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How easy was it for you to make the change from having no children to becoming a parent?

Very Easy	Easy	Somewhat Easy	Difficult	Very Difficult
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These variables combined yield a possible scoring system from 3-15, the lower the number being the more prepared the respondent was for parenthood.

The value of children is a variable composed of a combination of nineteen variables. A combination of the 10 variables listed in question 36 (considered advantages or rewards of children) minus a combination of the 9 variables in question 37 (considered disadvantages or costs of children) results in an end product considered as a profit-the value of children (see Appendix A).

The dependent variable, parent satisfaction, is a variable composed of the following two variables:

How satisfied are you with being a parent?

Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
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Every kind of work has certain day to day satisfactions, but some people find some kinds of work more satisfying than others. Compared with other kinds of work you could imagine yourself doing, how would you rate the satisfaction of child-rearing?

Much More Satisfying	Somewhat More Satisfying	Equally Satisfying	Somewhat Less Satisfying	Much Less Satisfying
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These two variables combined yield a maximum score of 10, the lower the number the higher the satisfaction as a parent. The above scoring system has to be considered when analyzing the means and standard deviations of the variables under study.

The following chapter will present the findings obtained through regression analysis of data obtained from the administration of the research instrument.

Chapter 5

Findings

This chapter will present and examine the research findings concerning the correlates of parent satisfaction as obtained from the administration of the research instrument. Demographic characteristics of the sample will be first reviewed. Findings will then be presented and discussed in the form of means, standard deviations, beta coefficients and path analysis of the proposed model of parent satisfaction. A summary will centre on the applicability of the parent satisfaction model.

Demographic Characteristics

Ninety-seven percent of the parents included in the sample were in first marriages with the remainder consisting of remarriages. The average number of children for each family unit was 2.95. Seventy percent of the parents lived within urban areas of metropolitan St. John's with 30 percent living in rural areas of the region.

The average age of males was 40 years, and of females 37.1 years. The mean length of marriage for males was 15 years and 15.2 years for females. In terms of religious affiliation, 16 percent were United Church,

35 percent Roman Catholic, 27.5 percent Anglican, 5 percent Salvation Army, 3 percent Pentecostal. Other religions and those with no religious affiliation, constituted the remaining 13.5 percent.

In comparing the education level, considerable differences existed between male and female respondents. For females, 54 percent had only completed some technical school or less. For males, only 39 percent fitted into this category. For females, out of the 46 percent who had completed a higher education, only 15 percent had graduated university. For males, out of the 61 percent with a higher education, 30 percent had graduated from university. The overall education level was relatively high.

Means and Standard Deviations of Variables

It is especially important when analyzing the means and standard deviations of the variables in this study, to refer to the systematic measurement of variables as explained in chapter 4. The actual means and standard deviations are more meaningful when this system of measurement is understood and applied.

The dependent variable in this study, parent satisfaction, does not show any major difference between males and females with regards to the mean level of parent satisfaction although there is a slightly higher mean for males and also slightly more variation from the mean. Referring to the scale for the measurement of variables,

this indicates that males experience a slightly lower level of parent satisfaction than females.

Table 4.
Means and Standard Deviations of Variables

Variable	Male		Female	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Parent Satisfaction	3.490	1.283	3.270	1.126
Value of Children	14.510	9.779	13.730	9.204
Parent Preparation	6.960	1.979	7.590	2.478
Age of First Parenthood	26.650	5.416	23.860	4.614
Age of Marriage	24.540	5.255	22.120	4.810
Number of Siblings	5.020	3.315	4.755	3.184
Satisfaction of Parents	1.515	0.579	1.640	0.689
Childhood Satisfaction	1.690	0.872	2.060	1.061

In viewing the value of children to parents, males hold a slightly higher mean value of children and tend to have more variation from the mean level than do females. On parent preparation, the female mean is higher and there is more variation from the mean. On the average, this indicates that females are not as prepared for parenthood as are males. It is likely that women, for the most part, bear the greater burden for child-rearing. Because of those increased responsibilities and burdens, women will likely rate themselves as not well prepared for the duties of parenthood.

The average age of marriage for both males and females is comparable with that of the general population with a tendency for females to marry in just over 2 years earlier than males. Interesting to note is that the age difference between the age of marriage and the age of first parenthood is considerably less for females than for males. When the number of marriages that is brought on by pregnancy is considered, this difference can probably be expected for females.

The family of origin variables included the number of siblings, satisfaction of parents and childhood satisfaction. The mean number of siblings for males (5.02) is slightly higher than for females (4.755). On the average, males tended to originate from large families. Regarding the satisfaction levels of parents, the male respondent's parents were slightly more satisfied. On childhood satisfaction, males tended to have a slightly lower mean and lower variation from the mean which indicates that males were generally more satisfied with childhood. In summary, males tended to originate from larger families, experience higher childhood satisfaction and have parents who were more satisfied.

Beta Coefficients of Variables

The beta coefficients presented in this section were obtained from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences multiple regression program package. The beta coefficients are the actual weights of casual linkage

or path of causal influence between the variables as identified in the parent satisfaction model. These paths or causal linkages are shown in diagrammatic form in the model with the relative strength of each path represented by a beta coefficient (See Figure 2 and Figure 3).

As indicated in chapter three, a model of parent satisfaction was proposed and chapter four explained that this model would be analyzed through a form of path analysis. The first section of analytical procedures will examine and discuss the beta coefficients of five variables and hypotheses with parent preparation. To follow will be an examination and discussion of the beta coefficients of five variables and hypotheses concerning the age of first parenthood. This section of analysis will conclude with the presentation and discussion of beta coefficients of seven variables and hypotheses with the dependent variable, parent satisfaction.

It should be noted that any causal relationships, (implied by the beta coefficients), found between any sets of variables strictly controls for all other variables included in this study. For example a hypothetical beta coefficient of .30 between number of siblings (independent variable) and parent preparation, indicates that 30 percent of the variation in parent preparation is explained by the number of siblings. This is controlling for only the variables included in the study, not for all possible variables. This will apply throughout

the analysis.

Table 5.

Beta Coefficients of Variables with Parent Preparation

Variable	Female Beta	Male Beta
Satisfaction of Parents	-.071***	.074**
Childhood Satisfaction	.089***	.098**
Number of Siblings	.134**	-.112**
Age of Marriage	N.S.	.156**
Value of Children	.276**	.300**
$R^2(1)$.11	.16
E (2)	.943	.917

** Probability less than .01

*** Probability less than .05

(1) R^2 value indicates the percent of the variation in parent preparation that is explained by the five variables in the parent satisfaction model acting together. This provides a measure of the explanatory power of the model.

(2) E (error) value is obtained by taking the square root of one minus the R^2 value ($E = \sqrt{1-R^2}$). This value indicates the percent of variation in parent preparation that is explained by all other variables when controlling for the variables in the model.

Table 5, provides the beta coefficients of five variables - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and the value of children - with parent preparation for both males and females. Most values are significant at

probability less than .01 with the others significant at probability less than .05.

An inverse effect at the same level of significance exists for males and females between the satisfaction level of their parents and their preparation for parenthood. There is a negative effect of the satisfaction of parents on female preparation for parenthood (-.071), the lower the satisfaction of their parents, the higher parent preparation. For males, a positive effect is present between the two variables (.074): the higher the satisfaction of their parents, the higher parent preparation.

Why should the satisfaction level of an individual's parents exert an opposite effect on parent preparation for males and females? In situations where females' parents were experiencing lower levels of parent satisfaction, females may have assumed the major parenting functions with the other siblings that would have ordinarily been performed by parents. Carrying out those additional responsibilities and child-rearing tasks would no doubt increase their knowledge of parenting. This assumed "parenthood" would be more likely for females than males.

However, a common assumption, although previous research between satisfaction of parents and parent preparation is practically non-existent, is that the positive effect as found for males in this study should exist. Consequently, the findings are consistent for males

with earlier predictions.

In looking at the means and standard deviations in Table 4 there is not sufficient variation in the two variables, satisfaction of parents and parent preparation, to explain the opposite effect for males and females. The mean level of parent preparation is slightly lower for females which indicates that males are generally more prepared for parenthood. While not making comparison of the mean level of parent preparation, this is somewhat inconsistent with LeMasters (1970) who claims that it seems that nature and society prepare mothers for their parental role better than they do fathers.

Referring back to hypothesis one, which stated that individuals who rate their own parents high on parent satisfaction will more likely be more prepared for parenthood than will individuals who rate their own parents low on parent satisfaction, it can be seen that the findings and discussion confirm this hypothesis for males but not for females.

For both males and females, there is a positive effect of childhood satisfaction on parent preparation (.098 and .089 respectively for males and females). In other words, the higher the childhood satisfaction, the higher the preparation for parenthood. Similar findings are noted by Stolz (1967) who found that parents' values, attitudes and behavior in respect to child care are influenced for the most part by their experiences in their

own childhood and their relationship with their own parents. It does seem logical to conjecture that children learn a good deal about parenting through being parented. If those parenting experiences are positive, then children should have positive experiences and knowledge for the arrival of their own children.

Additional evidence to support the positive relationship between childhood satisfaction and parent preparation is provided by Lott (1973). Her findings show that the adult desire for parenthood was a reflection of the quality of one's own childhood.

As predicted, the second hypothesis, which states that individuals who rate themselves high on childhood satisfaction will more likely be more prepared for parenthood than will individuals who rate themselves low on childhood satisfaction, is found to be confirmed for both males and females.

The beta coefficient shows that the number of siblings produces an opposite effect on parent preparation for males and females. For males, a negative effect exists (-.112): the higher the number of siblings, the higher the preparation for parenthood. For females, a positive effect exists (.134): the lower the number of siblings, the higher the preparation for parenthood.

It is generally assumed that the effect of number of siblings on parent preparation will be as found for males. In explaining the very inadequate preparation

for the parental role, LeMasters (1970) comment that most parents have grown up in relatively small families and have had very little experience caring for younger brothers and sisters. Similar evidence is provided by Eshleman (1978) through a review of literature on family size. He states that security in children of large families come from siblings. In the small family, security comes from parents. In addition, children of large families were more likely to feel that parents did not have enough time to satisfy each child. Children of small families remarked about the intensity of the relationship and the competition for affection.

Part of the above variation between males and females may be attributed to the fact that the mean number of siblings for males is slightly higher than for females. Also, males tend to be more prepared for parenthood than females. This should follow if the earlier findings of LeMasters (1970) hold true for this sample of parents.

The third hypothesis states that individuals with a large number of siblings will more likely rate themselves as more prepared for parenthood than individuals with a small number of siblings. This hypothesis, consistent with earlier research (LeMasters, 1970; Eshleman, 1978), is confirmed for males but not for females.

It may be argued that females with a large number of siblings have to assume major child-rearing functions. One could also speculate that if this is true, females

should be well prepared for parenthood. However, it must be further pointed out that females not only learn positive parenting experiences but they also learn the negative aspects of child-rearing. In conclusion, females originating from large families may not be ready to enter parenthood.

For males, the age of marriage produces a positive effect on parent preparation (.156): the older the age of marriage, the lower the preparation for parenthood. For females, the effect is not statistically significant between the two variables.

Studies associating young marriages with divorce, separations and marital dissatisfaction are popular among researchers. Although no direct relationship has been identified between the age of marriage and parent preparation, it has been indirectly suggested that young people are not mature enough or ready for marriage. These are contributing factors to marital disharmony.

The fourth hypothesis was: "Individuals who marry at a young age will more likely rate themselves as less prepared for parenthood than will individuals who marry at an older age". This hypothesis was not confirmed for males and found to be not significant for females.

The value of children variable produces a strong positive effect on parent preparation for both sexes (.276 and .300 respectively for females and males). The higher the value couples have for children at the time of

marriage, the more prepared they will be for parenthood.

In making reference back to chapter four, it was described that the value of children was determined through a combination of nineteen variables (see Appendix A). A combination of ten variables, considered advantages or rewards, minus a combination of nine variables, considered disadvantages or costs of children, results in an end product considered as the value of children. Where the advantages of children outweigh the costs, a higher value of children would be present.

In these findings the positive aspects or advantages tend to outweigh the negative aspects or costs. Where parents view children as positive (for example, providing love, joy and happiness; companionship; watching them grow and develop), they will likely be more knowledgeable of and ready to enter parenthood." Similarly, parents with a low value of children will probably not be ready for or willing to have children (that is, low on parent preparation).

Evidence from this study strongly confirms hypothesis five for both males and females: individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage will more likely rate themselves as more prepared for parenthood than will individuals who have a low value of children.

The effect of the five variables - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and value of children - in the parent satis-

faction model on parent preparation explains 11 percent of the variance in parent preparation for females and 16 percent for males. (This total effect is indicated by the R^2 values of .11 for females and .16 for males). In summary, the combined effects of those variables on parent preparation is stronger for males than females.

Table 6.

Beta Coefficients of Variables with
Age of First Parenthood

Variable	Female Beta	Male Beta
Satisfaction of Parents	-.069*	-.090
Childhood Satisfaction	.014	.084
Number of Siblings	.083	-.042
Age of Marriage	.720	.892
Value of Children	-.022	.050
R^2	.51	.79
E	.7	.458

* All values significant at probability less than .001.

Table 6 provides the beta coefficients of five variables - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and the value of children - with age of first parenthood for both males and females. All beta values are significant at probability less than .001.

For both males and females, the satisfaction level

of their parents exerts a negative effect on the age of parenthood ($-.069$ and $-.090$ respectively for females and males). The lower the satisfaction of parents, the lower the age of first parenthood.

Lee (1977) states that variables such as low parental marital satisfaction and poor relations with parents are associated with early marriages. (Later analysis in this section will discuss the strong positive relationship between young marriages and early parenthood). It follows from Lee's findings that the variables of low parental marital satisfaction and poor relations with parents are also closely related to a lower age of parenthood.

Children living in environments where their parents experience low levels of satisfaction may just wish "to get away from all this" and quite often this getting away may mean starting their own families. Also likely associated with low parental satisfaction would be a general lack of concern and control over their children, thus increasing the possibility of a premarital pregnancy. Another possibility is that children coming from low parental satisfaction families, may just wish to prove that they can make satisfactory parents themselves. If an individual's parents are highly satisfied, children may prefer to remain at home longer.

The findings confirm hypothesis six for both males and females: individuals who rate their own parents low

on parent satisfaction will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals who rate their own parents high on parent satisfaction.

Childhood satisfaction exerts a positive effect on the age of parenthood for both males and females (.014 and .084 respectively for females and males). As the beta coefficient indicates, this effect is stronger for males. In essence, this means that the higher childhood satisfaction, the lower the age of parenthood.

Individuals, especially males, who are satisfied as children will tend to become parents at an early age. These satisfactory childhood experiences produce a positive influence on the decision to become a parent.

It is interesting to note the different effect that the satisfaction level of an individual's parents and childhood satisfaction have on the age of parenthood. It seems likely that individuals not satisfied as children will not be very eager to embark on raising their own families. While this present research did not totally address the factors contributing to levels of childhood satisfaction, this is an area that should be explored in greater detail. Research in this direction could indicate possible explanations as to the different effect of the two variables on age of parenthood.

Hypothesis seven is found to be confirmed for both males and females: individuals who rate themselves high on childhood satisfaction will more likely become parents

at a younger age than will individuals who rate themselves low on childhood satisfaction.

The number of siblings produces an opposite effect on the age of parenthood for males and females. For males, a negative effect ($-.042$) exists, the greater the number of siblings, the lower the age of parenthood. For females, a positive effect is present ($.083$), the greater the number of siblings, the older the age of parenthood.

Why should those differences exist for males and females? Apparently, any explanation must take into account male and female roles within the family unit. Males, originating from large families, will start their own family early. Males may just wish to get away or simply have to leave home because of the large number of siblings. Quite often males, in those situations, would not complete school but rather enter the labour force at a young age to help supplement the family income. Being exposed to this would probably tend to create independence and perhaps also a high degree of maturity. Rather than returning to their own family of orientation, males would probably turn to starting their own family. It is generally felt that this certainly was a pattern in earlier Newfoundland society and no doubt some of this still holds true today, especially for males included in this sample.

On the other hand, females with a large number of siblings, may have had to remain at home to share household chores and child-rearing responsibilities for younger

children. It is rather unlikely that this would apply to males. Females, coming from those family situations, would tend to stay at home longer and not start their families very early. The findings for females are inconsistent with earlier research along those lines. Duncan, Friedman, Coble and Slesinger (1965) note that women from large families tend to leave school at an early age, to marry earlier and to begin childbearing at a younger age than do those from small families.

Any attempt at an explanation behind those differences must take into account that females become parents nearly three years earlier than males. This difference may account for some of the difference in the direction of the effect of the number of siblings on the age of parenthood.

The eighth hypothesis, individuals with a large number of siblings will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals with a small number of siblings, is found to be confirmed for males but not for females.

Not surprisingly, a strong positive effect exists between the age of marriage and the age of parenthood for both males (.892) and females (.720). It becomes fairly obvious that the lower the age of marriage, the lower the age of parenthood. This relationship can be strongly predicted since most couples have children before or shortly after marriage. In fact, a high proportion of marriages are attributed to the bride being pregnant.

Hypothesis nine states that individuals who marry at a young age will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals who marry at an older age. This was found to be verified for both males and females.

The value of children produces an opposite effect on the age of parenthood for males and females. For males, a positive effect is present (.050), the higher the value of children, the lower the age of parenthood. A negative effect (-.022) is present for females, the lower the value of children, the lower the age of parenthood.

These research findings show that the value of children is important for males in their decision regarding the age of parenthood. The more profit (advantages or rewards minus disadvantages or costs) that is present is directly related to the age of parenthood for males. Simply put another way, males who have a low value of children at the time of marriage will not have children at such an early age.

It may be that quite often the value of children has little effect on the actual age of parenthood for women. It is known that many females become pregnant due to accident or lack of contraceptive use and as a result the age of parenthood may not be as strongly linked to the value of children. It may be that the age of parenthood for women may be more strongly linked to other variables than to the value of children. The value of

children appears to be a weak link in the actual decision regarding the age of first parenthood for women.

Townes et al (1977) found that birth planning decisions appear to be a rational process in which couples weigh the relative costs and benefits of having children and then behave in a way that will bring about maximum benefit to themselves. This may hold true for subsequent children but does not appear to hold true for the first pregnancy for most women.

Hypothesis ten states that individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage will more likely become parents at a younger age than will individuals who have a low value of children. Findings of this study confirm this hypothesis for males but not for females.

The effects of the five variables - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and the value of children - in the parent satisfaction model on the age of parenthood explain 51 percent of the variation in the age of parenthood for females and 79 percent of the variance for males. (This total effect is indicated by the R^2 values of .79 for males and .51 for females.) The explanatory power of the model is high mainly due to the strong effect of the age of marriage on the age of parenthood. In conclusion, the effect of those five variables on the age of parenthood is stronger for males than females.

Table 7.

Beta Coefficients of Variables With
Parent Satisfaction

Variable	Female Beta	Male Beta
Satisfaction of Parents	.139*	.305***
Childhood Satisfaction	.115	-.261
Number of Siblings	-.021	.026
Age of Marriage	-.171	-.186
Value of Children	.292	.011
Parent Preparation	.242	.179
Age of First Parenthood	.160	.188
R^2	.24	.16
E	.861	.917

* For females all values significant at probability less than .001

*** For males all values significant at probability less than .05

Table 7 provides the beta coefficients of seven variables - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage, the value of children, parent preparation and the age of parenthood - with the dependent variable, parent satisfaction, for both males and females. For females, all beta values are significant at probability less than .001. For males, all beta values are significant at probability less than .05.

For both males and females, the satisfaction level of their parents exerts a positive effect on their satis-

faction as parents. The beta coefficient for males (.305) is considerably stronger than for females (.139). It is rather interesting to note that the more satisfied an individual's parents were, the more satisfied an individual will be as a parent. For females, a strong link exists between the two variables. The family of orientation appears to be a factor in parent satisfaction.

As suggested in the literature review, little research attention has focused on parent satisfaction, so it is not extremely helpful to seek clear explanations and directions concerning levels of parent satisfaction from those sources. However, some researchers claim that children who lack positive parenting experiences have a greater tendency than others to become ineffective, dissatisfied parents (Anthony and Benedek, 1970; Spinetta and Rigler, 1972; Conger, 1973). If the converse of this holds true, children who have positive and satisfied parents will tend to become effective, satisfied parents, support is given to the research findings for this study.

Hypothesis eleven predicted that individuals who rate their own parents low on parent satisfaction will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals who rate their own parents high on parent satisfaction. Findings from this study show (the higher the satisfaction of their parents, the higher their parent satisfaction) that this hypothesis is confirmed for both males and females.

Childhood satisfaction exerts an opposite effect on parent satisfaction for males and females. For females, a positive effect is present (.115): the higher childhood satisfaction, the higher parent satisfaction. However, for males, a strong negative effect is present (-.261): the lower childhood satisfaction, the higher parent satisfaction.

Earlier research findings are certainly consistent with the present findings for females but not as supportive for the findings for males. Chilman (1979) found that high scoring mothers (satisfied group) were more apt to rate their childhood as mostly happy. Similar findings from marital satisfaction studies generally show that people who rate their childhood as mostly happy tend to give a similar rating to their marriages (Terman, 1938; Bowerman, 1958; Locke and Williamson, 1958; Gurin, Veroff and Feld, 1960).

Earlier, Chilman (1966) stated that a number of investigations of marital dissatisfaction show that unhappily married couples are significantly more likely to rate their early years at home as unhappy. Lott (1973) also provided evidence concerning the link between favorable perceptions of childhood experiences and positive attitudes toward motherhood.

Chilman (1979) found that early childhood experiences in the family were perceived differently by high and low scoring mothers, but not fathers, seemed linked to the

probability that girls, more than boys, are deeply affected by family life in respect to their future traditional functions as wives and mothers. In addition, Lowenthal, Thurnber and Chiriboga (1974) found, in their intensive studies of men and women at different life stages, that familial behaviours and attitudes of women, more than men, were affected by their early experiences in their own families.

While earlier research indicates the direction of the effect and that the effect may be greater for females than males, it was not predicted that the negative direction would exist for males. Hypothesis twelve predicted that individuals rating themselves high on childhood satisfaction will more likely rate themselves higher on parent satisfaction than will individuals who rate themselves low on childhood satisfaction. This hypothesis is confirmed for females but not confirmed for males. The above explanations are the only plausible ones available at this time to explain the female and male differences.

The number of siblings produces an opposite effect on parent satisfaction for males and females. For males, a positive relationship exists (.026), the greater the number of siblings, the lower parent satisfaction. For females, a negative effect is present (-.021), the greater the number of siblings, the higher parent satisfaction.

(For clarity, the measurement of variables explained in Chapter 4 indicates an increase in the numerical value of parent satisfaction actually means a decrease in levels of parent satisfaction.)

The earlier findings of Eshleman (1978), discussed in the section dealing with the number of siblings and parent preparation, may apply differently for males and females. Eshleman stated that children of large families were more likely to feel that parents did not have enough time to satisfy each child. Children of small families remarked about the intensity of the relationship and competition for affection. No male - female differences were indicated in this respect, although this research supports clear differences in a number of respects.

Clausen and Clausen (1973) note the positive correlation between the number of one's siblings and the number of one's own children. This positive correlation is directly linked with high childhood satisfaction. When the mean number of siblings in this study (5.02 for males and 4.75 for females) is compared to the mean number of children per couple (2.95), it is most apparent that the number of one's own children is considerably less than the number of one's siblings. Again, if indeed any real relationship exists between the number of siblings and childhood satisfaction, males tend to be more satisfied as children and also tend to originate from larger families. Following this line of reasoning, it could be predicted that males would probably rate themselves higher on parent

satisfaction since they tend to originate from larger families. The actual findings of this study do not support this line of reasoning.

Applying the findings of Clausen and Clausen, it may be assumed that both males and females may be satisfied with parenthood not because of the effect of the number of siblings but because their own family is not of the same size as their family of origin.

Hypothesis thirteen, which states that individuals with a large number of siblings will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals with a small number of siblings, is found to be confirmed for males but not females.

For both sexes, the age of marriage has a strong negative effect on parent satisfaction ($-.171$ and $-.186$ respectively for females and males). The older the age of marriage, the higher parent satisfaction or stated another way, the younger the age of marriage, the lower parent satisfaction. Earlier predictions of this study are strongly supported by the beta values between the two variables.

As was noted in the literature review, research findings support the notion that young marriages are often positively related to marital instability, dissolution and dissatisfaction. Eshleman (1978) explains that a high portion of young marriages involve a pregnancy at the time of marriage and all data suggest a higher divorce rate

among marriages begun with a pregnancy. Considering the high association between the age of marriage and the age of parenthood, it has to be assumed that a fair proportion of marriages in this sample involved a pregnancy at the time of marriage. Following this reasoning, it can also be assumed that a number of marriages will result in divorce, dissolution and dissatisfaction.

Eshleman also adds that the problems of young parenthood are further compounded by additional unwanted pregnancies. Furthermore, if the first pregnancy is unwanted or unplanned and compounded by additional pregnancies, it can be related to lower levels of parent satisfaction.

Burchinal (1963) found that those who marry before the age of twenty-two or thereabouts are more likely than those who marry later to rate their marriages as unhappy by the time they have reached middle age. When the mean age of marriage is examined along with the current mean age of respondents and then compared to the prevalence of parent satisfaction, the above findings of Burchinal do not seem to apply to this study.

In any event, strong support is given to hypothesis fourteen, which predicted that individuals who marry at a young age will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals who marry at an older age, for both males and females. Earlier discussion in this thesis associated young marriages with divorce, separation and marital dissatisfaction. These findings

suggest that young marriages are also associated with lower levels of parent satisfaction.

The value of children has a positive effect on parent satisfaction for both sexes (the higher the value of children, the higher parent satisfaction). However, this effect is considerably stronger for females (.292) than males (.011). It would appear that the value of children is a strong indicator of parent satisfaction for females whereas it is only a weak indicator for males.

Any differences behind those beta weights cannot be adequately explained by the mean value of children. Although males hold a slightly higher value of children than females, there is not enough difference to fully explain the difference in the weight of the effect. On the average, in this study, both sexes tend to hold a similar value of children. It is particularly interesting to note that although the value of children is nearly identical, it produces a much stronger effect on parent satisfaction for females than males.

The actual beta values show that females must have a high value of children to be satisfied as parents but males may have a lower value of children and still be satisfied as parents. Some of the more obvious advantages seen by females would include companionship, love, fun and enjoyment. It is commonly assumed females have to feel needed and loved whereas males have to feel a

sense of achievement. This may help explain the different effect of the value of children.

Hypothesis fifteen states that individuals who have a high value of children at the time of marriage will more likely rate themselves higher on parent satisfaction than will individuals who have a low value of children. The findings strongly confirm this hypothesis for females but is not as predictable for males.

A positive effect exists between parent preparation and parent satisfaction for both sexes. However, the effect is stronger for females (.242) than males (.179). LeMasters (1970) states that many couples are poorly prepared for parenthood, and that quite often parenthood can be classified as a crisis. In this study, the mean level of parent preparation is higher for females indicating that women are not as well prepared for parenthood as men. The effect is greater for females, indicating that parent preparation is a strong determinant of parent satisfaction.

Bernard (1972) provides support to the suggestion that parent preparation may be more important to women by claiming that society places almost complete responsibility for child-rearing on the mother's shoulders. It is little wonder that the preparation for those additional child-rearing tasks and responsibilities will play a stronger part on the overall parent satisfaction for females than males.

Confirmation is given the sixteenth hypothesis for both males and females: individuals who rate themselves as more prepared for parenthood will more likely rate themselves higher on parent satisfaction than will individuals who rate themselves as less prepared for parenthood.

For both sexes, a strong positive effect is exerted by the age of parenthood on parent satisfaction: the older the age of first parenthood, the lower parent satisfaction. (For clarity, the measurement of the variable parent satisfaction, indicates that an increase in the numerical value actually means a decrease in parent satisfaction). The beta values are .160 for females and .188 for males. It may be that the older one becomes a parent, the more difficulties may be associated with having children. The adjustment from not having children to having children may be more of a crisis at an older age than at a younger age.

It could further be argued that younger people are more prepared for parenthood and consequently be more satisfied as parents. Young parents may be better able to deal with the extra demands and responsibilities of child-rearing. The costs involved in older parenthood appear to be greater than for young parents. After passing a certain stage, perhaps it becomes more difficult to accept children and they may prove to be less satisfying.

The final hypothesis, which states that individuals who become parents at an older age will more likely rate themselves lower on parent satisfaction than will individuals who become parents at a younger age, is found to be confirmed for both males and females.

The effects of the seven variables in the parent satisfaction model - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage, the value of children, parent preparation and age of parenthood - on parent satisfaction explain 24 percent of the variance in parent satisfaction for females and 16 percent for males. (This total effect is indicated by a R^2 value of .24 for females and a R^2 value of .16 for males). In summary, the parent satisfaction model has more explanatory power for females than males.

Path Analysis of the Parent Satisfaction Model

As discussed in chapter three, the parent satisfaction model has to be viewed in terms of a time continuum, consisting of three time frames. The five variables, satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and value of children, represent time one (T1). The two variables of parent preparation and age of parenthood represent time two (T2). Finally, parent satisfaction represents time three (T3). That is, variables in T1 precede those variables in T2 and T3, and variables in T1 and T2 precede the variable in T3.

Analysis of this model takes the form of path analysis. Loether and McTavish (1974) explain that the variables included in such a model must be known to fall in some specific theoretical order in their effect on other variables. The time sequence explained above specifies this ordering for the parent satisfaction model. Each arrow in the model represents a presumed causal linkage or path of causal influence. The strength of each path is indicated by the beta coefficients as discussed earlier. Since the causal relationships have been discussed in great detail, little time will be spent on the actual beta coefficients but rather focus will centre on the R^2 values and the Error values.

When path analysis is used to examine the parent satisfaction model, it is shown that the five variables in T1 produce an effect on the two variables in T2. Parent satisfaction in T3 occurs after and is caused by variables in T1 and T2. Since analytical comparisons were made along male-female lines, two models will be presented along with the beta coefficients to indicate the strength of each path of causal linkage.

In order to fully understand the model it is necessary to explore the error values associated with the beta coefficients. The Error value (E) is obtained by taking the square root of one minus the R^2 value ($\sqrt{1 - R^2}$). These E values are presented along with the R^2 values in Table 5, Table 6, and Table 7. This E value explains the

percentage of variance of all other variables when controlling for the variables in the model. This E value will also be applied to the overall variance for the variables in the different time frames. In explaining the causal effect of variables in each time frame, reference will be made to the beta coefficients in Table 5, Table 6 and Table 7.

Female Model of Parent Satisfaction

Figure 2, on the following page, presents the female model of parent satisfaction along with the beta coefficients to represent the strength of the paths of causal influence. The actual direction and magnitude of the causal linkage has already been discussed. In interpreting this model continual reference should be made to the model and the tables presented earlier in this section.

Table 5 indicates the effect of the five variables in T1 of the parent satisfaction model - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and the value of children - on female parent preparation in T2. The model explains (through the R^2 measure of its power of influence) 11 percent of the variation in female parent preparation through the effect of the five variables in T1. The error value of the model ($E=.943$) indicates the variance in parent preparation that is attributed to all other possible variables while controlling for the five variables in

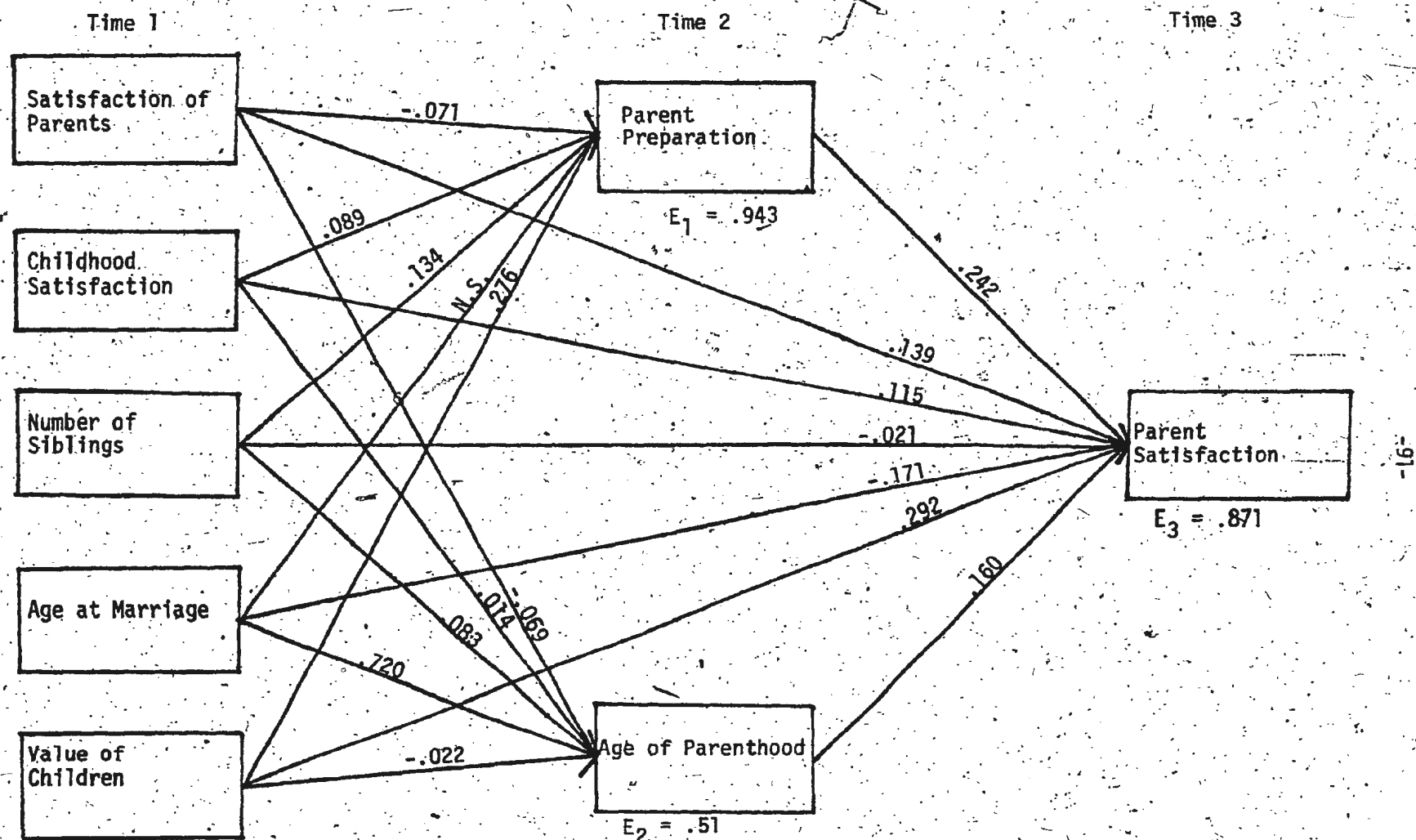


Figure 2
Female Model of Parent Satisfaction

T1 of the model. The model suggests that the five variables in T1 produce a relatively strong causal influence on female parent preparation.

Table 6 indicates the effect of the same five variables in T1 of the model on the female age of parenthood. The model explains 51 percent of the variation in the female age of parenthood that is attributed to the five variables in T1 when operating jointly ($R^2=.51$). This explanatory power of the model is relatively high since there is a strong effect produced by the age of marriage on the age of parenthood. The error value of the model ($E=.7$) indicates the variance in the female age of parenthood that is attributed to other possible variables when controlling for those variables in T1 of the model. This is suggestive that the model provides a good explanation of variables influencing the female age of parenthood. The variables in T1 of the model produce a strong causal influence on the female age of parenthood in T2.

Table 7 presents the effects of the five variables in T1 and the two variables in T2 of the model on the level of female parent satisfaction in T3. The model ($R^2=.24$) accounts for 24 percent of the variance in female parent satisfaction through the effects of the seven variables. The model's error value ($E=.871$) indicates the variance in female parent satisfaction that is attributed to all possible variables excluding those in the model. In summary, the parent satisfaction model provides a strong explanatory power of female parent satisfaction.

The female parent satisfaction model provides support to the three research propositions stated in Chapter 3. The explanatory power of the variables in each time frame of the model verifies those three research propositions for females.

Male Model of Parent Satisfaction

Figure 3, on the following page, presents the male model of parent satisfaction along with the beta coefficients to represent the strength of the paths of causal influence. The causal influence and the magnitude of the effect has been discussed earlier.

Table 5 indicates the effect of the five variables in T1 of the model - satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, number of siblings, age of marriage and the value of children - on male parent preparation in T2. The model explains 16 percent of the variance in male parent preparation that is attributed to the effect of the five variables in T1. (This total effect is indicated by the R^2 value of .16.) The error value of the model ($E=.917$) indicates the variance in male parent preparation that is attributed to all possible variables while controlling for those in T1 of the model. The explanatory power of the variables in T1 of the model on parent preparation is stronger for males (16 percent) than for females (11 percent).

Table 6 provides the effects of the same five

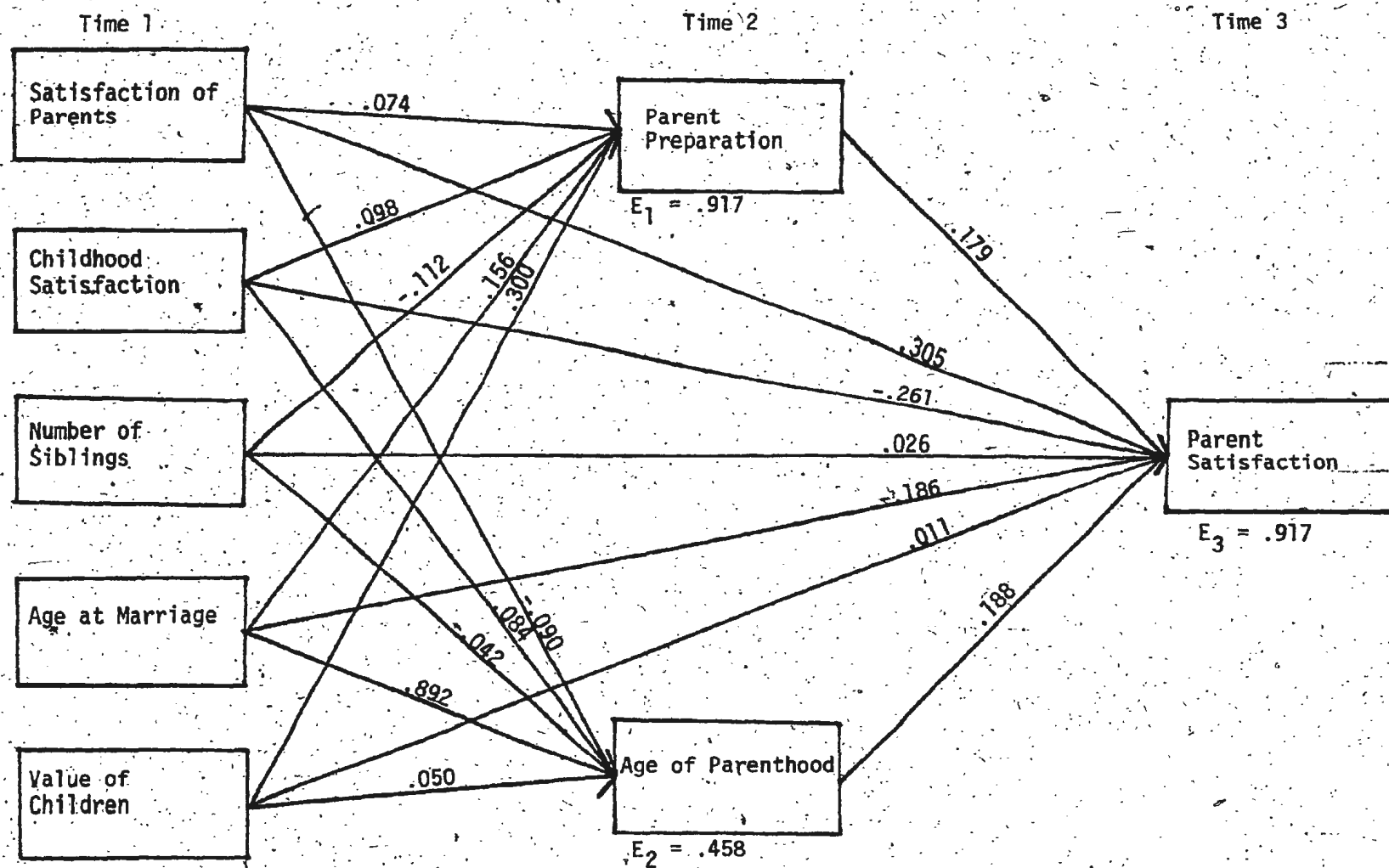


Figure 3
Male Model of Parent Satisfaction

$R^2 = .16$

variables in T1 on the male age of parenthood in T2. The model explains ($R^2=.79$) 79 percent of the variance in the male age of parenthood that is attributed to the five variables in T1 when operating together ($R^2=.79$). In addition, the error value of the model ($E=.458$) indicates the variance in the male age of parenthood that is attributed to all other possible variables while controlling for those variables in T1 of the model. The explanatory power of the causal influence of the variables in T1 on the age of parenthood is much stronger for males (79 percent) than for females (51 percent).

Table 7 presents the effect of the five variables in T1 and the two variables in T2 of the model on the male level of parent satisfaction in T3. The model accounts for 16 percent of the variance in male parent satisfaction obtained through the effect of the seven variables ($R^2=.16$). The error value of the model ($E=.917$) indicates the variation in male parent satisfaction that is attributed to all other possible variables. The explanatory power of the causal influence of the model on parent satisfaction is not as strong for males (16 percent) as for females (24 percent).

The explanatory power of the variables in each time frame of the parent satisfaction model lends strong support to the three research propositions stated in chapter 3.

Summary of the Parent Satisfaction Model

The parent satisfaction model has been discussed in

terms of the beta coefficients indicating the direction and magnitude of the paths of causal influence. A number of distinct male-female differences emerge from these findings and discussion.

The family of origin variables, satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction, and number of siblings, exert important differences for males and females. The satisfaction level of an individual's parents exerts an opposite effect on parent preparation for both males and females but the direction of influence on the age of parenthood and parent satisfaction is the same. Childhood satisfaction only exerts an opposite effect on parent satisfaction for males and females. Rather interestingly, the number of siblings exerts an opposite effect on parent preparation, age of parenthood and parent satisfaction for males and females. Additional research in this area could help discover the reasons for these male-female differences.

The age of marriage does not serve to offer any differences between the sexes apart from the effect on parent preparation. For males, the age of marriage produces a positive effect (.156) on parent preparation and for females, no effect was found. The effect of the age of marriage on parent preparation for males is relatively strong so one would not predict that the variable would have no effect for females. This difference may indicate

a very real difference between males and females regarding the effects of the age of marriage on future events in their lives.

The value of children variable exerts an opposite effect on the age of parenthood, a much stronger positive effect on parent satisfaction for females and basically the same magnitude of positive effect on parent preparation. Again, this variable suggests distinct male and female differences.

No real differences were found between the variables of parent preparation and the age of first parenthood in their effects on parent satisfaction for males and females.

In chapter 3, there were three research propositions stated as the main focus of this study. Proposition one stated "factors in the family of origin and early marriage exert a significant effect on parent preparation". This proposition was found to be verified for both sexes. From the five hypotheses derived from this proposition, four were confirmed for males and two confirmed for females.

Proposition two stated "factors in the family of origin and early marriage exert a significant effect on the age of parenthood". Again, this proposition was verified for both sexes. In addition, out of the five hypotheses derived from this proposition, five were confirmed

for males and three confirmed for females.

Proposition three stated "factors in the family of origin, early marriage and early parenthood exert a significant effect on parent satisfaction". The findings of this study confirm this proposition for males and females. From the seven hypotheses derived from this proposition, confirmation is given to 6 for males and 6 for females.

In summary, while the three major propositions were verified for both sexes, out of a total of 17 hypotheses, 15 were confirmed for males whereas 11 were confirmed for females. Again, this shows the extent of the male and female differences. The explanatory power of the parent satisfaction model seems adequate to offer explanations concerning levels of parent satisfaction for males and females. The findings of this study lends strong support to the central propositions and the parent satisfaction models presented in this study.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

The general findings of this study provided support to the three research propositions and the parent satisfaction model. More specifically, from a total of seventeen hypotheses which were tested, fifteen were confirmed for males and eleven confirmed for females.

The study findings show a number of male and female differences regarding the effect of specific variables. The family of origin variables, satisfaction of parents, childhood satisfaction and number of siblings, showed a number of male and female differences. The age of marriage showed a strong positive effect on parent preparation for males and no effect was found for females. This is suggestive of some very real male and female differences. In addition, the value of children showed some distinct differences in the effect on the age of parenthood and parent satisfaction.

Following the social exchange theory, it was suggested that individuals evaluate earlier learning experiences according to costs and rewards. This evaluation of earlier learning experiences in the family or origin and early marriage will influence the level of parent preparation and the age of parenthood. In

sequence, parent preparation and the age of parenthood influence parent satisfaction.

Findings from this study show that experiences in the family of origin and early marriage exert some opposite effects on the age of parenthood and parent preparation for males and females. Few differences exist for males and females with respect to experiences in early parenthood and their influence on parent satisfaction.

The parent satisfaction model was proposed from a social exchange perspective and consisted of eight variables. Comparisons were made between males and females since some researchers suggest that family life is perceived differently by males and females (Bernard, 1972; Lowenthal et al, 1974; Chilman, 1979). The findings of this study show that the explanatory power of the parent satisfaction model is stronger for females ($R^2 = .24$) than for males ($R^2 = .16$). According to these research findings, the parent satisfaction model has been validated for both sexes.

Implications of the Study

One implication of this study is that parenthood and parent satisfaction may be perceived differently by males and females. Parenting is usually seen as a more central role for women than men (Chilman, 1979). Earlier research supports male and female differences in family

life and the parenting roles (Bernard, 1972; Lowenthal et al, 1974). The number of male and female differences found in this study imply that parenthood is likely perceived differently by males and females.

The findings of this study are contrary to the popular belief that women are particularly dissatisfied because of the increased child-rearing burdens, isolation and restrictions on employment opportunities (Lott, 1973). The mean level of parent satisfaction shows that women are highly satisfied with parenthood. Similar findings to the above have been found by other researchers (Gurin, et al, 1960; Campbell et al, 1976; Chilman, 1979).

In the introduction, it was indicated that family life education and marriage preparation courses were offered to provide information to parents and potential parents. Findings from this study seem to imply the need for more diversified programs which take into account male and female differences. Those family educational programs seek to "strengthen family life" and this can best be done recognizing male and female differences.

Since many male and female differences are attributed to the family of orientation, it can be argued that educational programs on family life should start at the public school level. Eshleman (1978) suggests that today most people want to see family-life education in the public schools. At the local level, the Minister of Education expressed concern over the inadequate preparation most

young people have for family life and suggests a shift in emphasis to this area as changes in the education system.

Our research findings also suggest that social workers, family and marriage counsellors and other helping professionals may have to adopt more skilled professional counselling and educational programs to help male and female parents. Perhaps the emphasis should be placed on reaching dissatisfied parents and their families. Professionals, simply by knowing causal factors contributing to parent satisfaction, could improve the level of assistance being presently provided to their clients. A point to remember in this regard, is the finding of Chilman (1979) who found that most parents in her study had no desire to seek the help of human services personnel.

This study implies that society, through social policy or education programs, can help determine levels of parent satisfaction. The declining fertility rate suggests that the number of siblings is decreasing. The next generation of parents will mostly originate from small families, so now specific predictions can be made concerning the effect of this variable on levels of parent satisfaction. The age of marriage may be modified through placing legal restrictions on the age of marriage. The value of children may be modified through informing potential parents the actual costs and rewards of parenthood. The above examples suggest that society can modify

certain learning experiences in an individual's life which will influence his future level of parent satisfaction.

In summary, the general implications of the study appear to suggest that a shift in emphasis must be made in the educational and public awareness field. However, before this can adequately be done, the resource people (social workers, teachers, psychologists, marriage counsellors or others), have to be adequately prepared and informed about factors contributing to levels of parent satisfaction.

Additional Research

While the focus of this research centred on a mixed urban and rural population, a large percent (70) were classified as living in urban areas. It is suggested that a similar study could be replicated in a largely rural area to measure the generalizability of the study. In addition, this study should be replicated in other areas of Canada to determine the generalizability of the Newfoundland findings.

This study centred on respondents who were married and living together. Additional research on parent satisfaction should include single parents, divorced parents and separated parents. This research would not only serve to test the research hypotheses and propositions as put forward in this study but it would also serve to indicate the extent to which those findings can be generalized to all parents.

A similar study of this nature could probably include children as well as parents. This would enable children to evaluate their own childhood satisfaction and also the satisfaction of their parents. This would enable researchers to draw a link between childhood satisfaction and the satisfaction of their parents.

Not only should additional research encompass the variables of the parent satisfaction model but also include other defined family variables in order that this model may be expanded. With the expansion of this model, the explanatory power may also be increased.

In conclusion, this study has contributed new knowledge concerning parent satisfaction and added to what has been a limited research literature. The parent satisfaction model is a useful model which can be modified and expanded to increase explanations of levels of parent satisfaction. Considering the prevalence of parental families in Newfoundland, this additional information should serve a useful purpose of both parents and potential parents.

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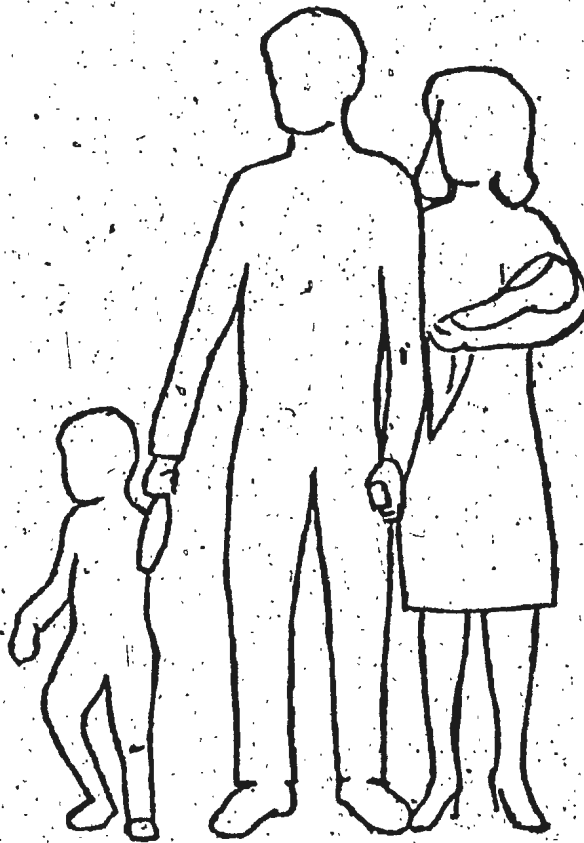
Appendix A

Research Questionnaire

FAMILY RESEARCH PROJECT

1979

QUESTIONNAIRE



MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY OF NEWFOUNDLAND

FAMILY LIFE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of a Family Research project being conducted by Memorial University of Newfoundland, School of Social Work. In this project we are interested in looking at family life in general. In particular, we are interested in what it means to be a wife or husband and a parent. We will ask you questions about the family you grew up in, as well as your present family.

Please feel free to be frank in answering these questions. Your answers will be combined with those of many other families but any specific information you give us will be kept strictly confidential.

A.

First I'd like to ask you some general questions about how you feel about your present life situation.

1. Taking all things into consideration, how satisfied would you say you are with your marriage?

VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED
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2. How would you compare your marriage with those of other people you know?

BETTER THAN ANY I KNOW	BETTER THAN MOST	ABOUT AVERAGE	NOT AS GOOD AS MOST	WORSE THAN ANY I KNOW
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3. How satisfied are you with being a parent?

VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED
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4. How would you compare your satisfaction as a parent with that of other parents you know?

MUCH GREATER	GREATER	SAME	LESS	MUCH LESS
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5. How satisfied do you feel with your life generally?

VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED
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6. How important do you feel it is to plan your life a good way ahead?

VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	NOT VERY IMPORTANT	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT
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7. When you do make plans ahead, how often do you usually get to carry them out the way you planned? (i.e., without having to make a change in them)

VERY OFTEN	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
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B. Family of Origin

In this next section, I'd like you to think back to the time and place of your childhood.

8. How many people lived in the community in which you grew up?

LESS THAN 1,000	1,000-5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	OVER 20,000
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9. What kind of work did most of these people do? _____

10. What kind of work did your father do? _____

11. Did your mother have a paying job?

NO

YES



If yes:

i What was it? _____

ii How many hours a day was she away from home? _____

iii How many years did she work while you were living at home? _____

12.

When you were growing up, who took responsibility for the following:	FATHER MUCH MORE THAN MOTHER	FATHER MORE THAN MOTHER	FATHER AND MOTHER EQUALLY	MOTHER MORE THAN FATHER	MOTHER MUCH MORE THAN FATHER
a. Earning family income					
b. Childrearing					
c. Housework					
d. Organising family recreation					
e. Helping with personal problems					

13. How many brothers and sisters did you have? _____

14. How many of them were living at home with you? _____

15. Did any people other than yourself, your parents and your brothers and sisters live in the same house with you?

NO

YES



If yes:

i. How many others? _____

ii. Who were they? _____

16. What was your family's religion?

UNITED
CHURCH

ROMAN
CATHOLIC

ANGLICAN

SALVATION
ARMY

PENTECOSTAL

OTHER
(SPECIFY) _____

17. How often did your family go to church?

NOT AT
ALL

A FEW
TIMES

ABOUT
ONCE/MONTH

2-3 TIMES
A MONTH

ONCE PER WEEK
OR MORE

18. How satisfied do you think your parents were with their marriage?

VERY
SATISFIED

SATISFIED

SOMEWHAT
SATISFIED

DISSATISFIED

VERY
DISSATISFIED

19. How satisfied do you think your parents were with being parents?

VERY
SATISFIED

SATISFIED

SOMEWHAT
SATISFIED

DISSATISFIED

VERY
DISSATISFIED

20. How satisfied were you with your life as a child?

VERY
SATISFIED

SATISFIED

SOMEWHAT
SATISFIED

DISSATISFIED

VERY
DISSATISFIED

21. Here is a list of things which your Mother and Father might have done when they were trying to solve a problem. Taking all disagreements into account, not just the most serious ones, indicate how frequently they, as a couple, did the following during a conflict.

	NEVER	ALMOST NEVER	SOMETIMES	ALMOST ALWAYS	ALWAYS
1. Avoided the issue					
2. Tried to discuss the issue calmly					
3. Argued and/or yelled a lot					
4. Threatened to use force					
5. Actually used force					
6. Other (specify)					

22. Here is a list of things which you and your parents might have done when you had a conflict. Taking all disagreements into account, not just the most serious ones, indicate how frequently you and your parents did the following during a conflict.

	NEVER	ALMOST NEVER	SOMETIMES	ALMOST ALWAYS	ALWAYS
1. Avoided the issue					
2. Tried to discuss the issue calmly					
3. Argued and/or yelled a lot					
4. Threatened to use force					
5. Actually used force					
6. Other (specify)					

C. Early Marriage

Now I have some questions dating back to the time just before and when you first got married.

23. How long did you and your husband/wife go out together before you got married?

LESS THAN 6 MONTHS	MORE THAN 1 YEAR	2 - 3	MORE THAN
6 MONTHS - 1 YEAR	BUT LESS THAN 2 YEARS	YEARS	3 YEARS

24. Did the two of you live together before you got married?

NO

YES



If yes:

For how long?

LESS THAN 6 MONTHS	6 MONTHS - 1 YEAR	MORE THAN 1 YEAR & LESS THAN 2 YRS	2-3 YRS	MORE THAN 3 YEARS
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25. How old were you when you got married? _____

26. How much schooling had you completed by then?

8TH GRADE OR LESS
SOME HIGH SCHOOL
GRAD. HIGH SCHOOL
SOME TECH. SCHOOL

GRAD. TECH. SCHOOL
SOME UNIVERSITY
GRAD. UNIVERSITY
OTHER (SPECIFY) _____

27. What were your reasons for getting married?

28. How did your relatives and friends feel about your marriage? Did they ...

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	APPROVE SOMEWHAT	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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29. People have different opinions and have made statements about what it takes to make a successful marriage. At the time of your marriage, how knowledgeable would you say you were on this subject?

VERY KNOWLEDGEABLE	KNOWLEDGEABLE	SOMEWHAT KNOWLEDGEABLE	NOT VERY KNOWLEDGEABLE	NOT AT ALL KNOWLEDGEABLE
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30. How ready for marriage do you feel you were?

VERY READY	READY	SOMEWHAT READY	NOT VERY READY	NOT AT ALL READY
---------------	-------	-------------------	-------------------	---------------------

31. How easy was it for you to change from being single to being married?

VERY EASY	EASY	SOMEWHAT EASY	DIFFICULT	VERY DIFFICULT
--------------	------	------------------	-----------	-------------------

32. How old were you when you first became a parent? _____

33. When you first became a parent, how knowledgeable would you say you were about what it takes to be a successful parent?

VERY KNOWLEDGEABLE	KNOWLEDGEABLE	SOMEWHAT KNOWLEDGEABLE	NOT VERY KNOWLEDGEABLE	NOT AT ALL KNOWLEDGEABLE
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34. How ready for parenthood did you feel you were?

VERY READY	READY	SOMEWHAT READY	NOT VERY READY	NOT AT ALL READY
---------------	-------	-------------------	-------------------	---------------------

35. How easy was it for you to make the change from having no children to becoming a parent?

VERY EASY	EASY	SOMEWHAT EASY	DIFFICULT	VERY DIFFICULT
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D. Children (I)

In this section, I will be asking questions about children in general and looking at why some people decide to have children and others decide not to. In making this decision, couples often look at both the advantages and disadvantages of having children.

36. I am now going to read you a number of reasons people sometimes give for wanting children. For each one, I'd like you to think back to the time when you were first married and tell me how important this reason was for you.

	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	NOT VERY IMPORTANT	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT
1. Because marriage is lonely without children					
2. Because my husband/wife wanted children					
3. Because having children would make my marriage stronger					
4. Because I wanted someone to carry on my family name					
5. Because having children would help our family economically in years to come					
6. Because it would be fun to have children around the house					
7. Because children are a comfort in one's old age					
8. Because I would enjoy caring for and raising children					
9. Because having children would prove I'm an adult					
10. Because I thought I would make a good parent					

37. Often, people feel two ways at the same time. While they decide they want children, they still realise that there are some reasons for not having children. I will now read you a list of reasons people sometimes give for not wanting children. Again, I'd like you to think back to the time when you were first married and tell me how important you felt these reasons were.

	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	NOT VERY IMPORTANT	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT
1. Because children would interfere with the time I could spend with my husband/wife					
2. Because my husband/wife didn't want children					
3. Because having children would cause problems between me and my husband/wife					
4. Because having and raising children is too expensive					
5. Because children are noisy and disruptive to household					
6. Because children are a cause of worry throughout one's life					
7. Because children would be a lot of work and bother for me					
8. Because having children would restrict my activities as an adult					
9. Because I felt I would not make a good parent					

38. When you were first married, why did you think people had children?

E. Fertility Planning

Some people practice birth control or family planning, either to delay a pregnancy or to stop having children.

39. What is your opinion generally about married people doing something to plan pregnancy? (i.e., using some method of birth control)

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	APPROVE SOMEWHAT	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
---------------------	---------	---------------------	------------	------------------------

40. How do you feel personally about doing something to plan pregnancy? (i.e., using some method of birth control)

STRONGLY APPROVE	APPROVE	APPROVE SOMEWHAT	DISAPPROVE	STRONGLY DISAPPROVE
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41. Have you ever received any instructions on birth control methods?

NO

YES



If yes:

- i Who gave these instructions?

PARENT	FRIEND	NURSE	DOCTOR	OTHER (SPECIFY) _____
--------	--------	-------	--------	--------------------------

- ii How satisfied were you with these instructions?

VERY SATISFIED	SATISFIED	SOMEWHAT SATISFIED	DISSATISFIED	VERY DISSATISFIED
-------------------	-----------	-----------------------	--------------	----------------------

42. Now I'd like to ask you some questions about specific methods of birth control.

Have you ever heard about

Can you tell me how it is used? (Probe for details)

Have you or your husband/wife ever used it?

Method	Have you heard about this method?	Can you tell me how it is used?	Have you or your spouse ever used it?
1. IUD or coil			
2. Birth control pill			
3. Condom or rubber			
4. Diaphragm or cap			
5. Rythm or calendar			
6. Withdrawal			
7. Vasectomy or male steril'n			
8. Tubal ligation or female sterilization			

If yes to any in this column:

i How old were you when you first used a method of birth control?

ii How regularly have you used birth control since?

VERY REGULARLY REGULARLY SOMEWHAT REGULARLY NOT VERY REGULARLY NOT AT ALL REGULARLY

iii Did you/your wife ever become pregnant while using some method of birth control?

NO

YES

If yes:
What did you do about it?

iv Was there a time when you did not use birth control?

NO

YES

If yes:
When was that?

Cont'd.

v. Do you think you used birth control effectively?

ALWAYS MOST OF
 THE TIME SOMETIMES SELDOM NEVER

43. How old were you when you first had sexual intercourse? _____

44. How old were you at the time of your first pregnancy? _____

45. At the present time, are you and your husband/wife using any form of birth control?

NO

YES
↓

OTHER (SPECIFY) _____

If yes:

i. How satisfied are you with the methods you are using?

VERY SOMEWHAT VERY
SATISFIED SATISFIED SATISFIED DISSATISFIED DISSATISFIED

ii. Who made the decision to use birth control?

HUSBAND HUSBAND HUSBAND AND WIFE WIFE
COMPLETELY MAINLY WIFE EQUALLY MAINLY COMPLETELY

46. When you were first married, how many children did you think you would like to have?

47. When you were first married, how did you think you'd like your children spaced? (i.e., how many years between each child)

48. How many children do you have now?

sex

birth date

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

49. Did you plan your first?

second?

third?

50. Did you plan the spacing between 1 and 2?

2 and 3?

3 and 4?

etc.

51. Do you expect to have more children than you already have?

NO

YES

UNDECIDED

if yes:

i How many more? _____

ii Will you use some form of birth control to achieve this number?

NO

YES

52. Now I'd like you to imagine that you could live your life all over again. If you could do just that:

a. Would you have:

MORE CHILDREN

SAME NUMBER OF CHILDREN

FEWER CHILDREN

b. Would you have spaced your children differently?

NO

YES



If yes:

FEWER YEARS
BETWEEN

MORE YEARS
BETWEEN

F. Children (II)

53.

Now that you have children, how important do you see these reasons for having children, at this point in time?	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	NOT VERY IMPORTANT	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT
1. Because marriage is lonely without children					
2. Because having children has made my marriage stronger					
3. Because our children will carry on the family name and/or traditions					
4. Because having children helps or will help our family economically					
5. Because it is fun to have children around the house					
6. Because children are a comfort in one's old age					
7. Because I enjoy caring for and having children					
8. Because I think I make a good parent					

54. What would you say are some of the other good things or advantages about having children, compared with not having children at all?

55.

If you had to make a decision whether or not to have more children, how important would the following reasons be for not wanting more children?	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	SOMEWHAT IMPORTANT	NOT VERY IMPORTANT	NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT
1. Because children interfere with the time I could spend with my husband/wife					
2. Because my husband/wife doesn't want more children					
3. Because children cause problems between me and my husband/wife					
4. Because having and raising children is expensive					
5. Because children are noisy and disruptive					
6. Because children are a cause of worry throughout one's life					
7. Because children are a lot of work and bother for me					
8. Because children restrict my activities as an adult					
9. Because I feel I do not make a good parent					

56. What would you say are some of the difficulties or disadvantages connected with having children, compared with not having children at all.

57. Why do you think people around here have children?

58. Every kind of work has certain day to day satisfactions, but some people find some kinds of work more satisfying than others. Compared with other kinds of work you could imagine yourself doing, how would you rate the satisfaction of childrearing?

MUCH MORE	SOMEWHAT MORE	EQUALLY	SOMEWHAT LESS	MUCH LESS
SATISFYING	SATISFYING	SATISFYING	SATISFYING	SATISFYING

59. Here is a list of things which you and your children might do when you are trying to solve a problem. Taking all disagreements into account, not just the most serious ones, indicate how frequently you do the following during a conflict.

	NEVER	ALMOST NEVER	SOMETIMES	ALMOST ALWAYS	ALWAYS
1. Avoid the issue					
2. Try to discuss the issue calmly					
3. Argue and/or yell a lot					
4. Threaten to use force					
5. Actually use force					
6. Other (specify)					

60. Here is a list of things which you and your husband/wife might do when you are trying to solve a problem. Taking all disagreements into account, not just the most serious ones, indicate how frequently you and your husband/wife do the following during a conflict.

	NEVER	ALMOST NEVER	SOMETIMES	ALMOST ALWAYS	ALWAYS
1. Avoid the issue					
2. Try to discuss the issue calmly					
3. Argue and/or yell a lot					
4. Threaten to use force					
5. Actually use force					
6. Other (specify)					

61.

In your present family, who takes responsibility for the following:	HUSBAND MUCH MORE THAN WIFE	HUSBAND MORE THAN WIFE	HUSBAND AND WIFE EQUALLY	WIFE MORE THAN HUSBAND	WIFE MUCH MORE THAN HUSBAND
a. Earning the family income					
b. Child rearing					
c. Housework					
d. Organising family recreation					
e. Helping with personal problems					

62. How satisfied are you with this arrangement?

VERY
SATISFIED

SATISFIED

SOMEWHAT
SATISFIED

DISSATISFIED

VERY
DISSATISFIED

63.

Looking ahead to the future, when your own children marry, who do you think will take responsibility for the following?	HUSBAND MUCH MORE THAN WIFE	HUSBAND MORE THAN WIFE	HUSBAND AND WIFE EQUALLY	WIFE MORE THAN HUSBAND	WIFE MUCH MORE THAN HUSBAND
a. Earning family income					
b. Child rearing					
c. Housework					
d. Organising family recreation					
e. Helping with personal problems					

G. Current Social Situation

To analyse results of this questionnaire, we need some specific information about your present situation.

64. What is your present marital status?

FIRST MARRIAGE

RE-MARRIAGE

NOT LEGALLY MARRIED

65. If you had your life to live over again, would you marry the same person?

YES
DEFINITELY

PROBABLY

UNCERTAIN

PROBABLY
NOT

NO, DEFINITELY
NOT

66. What is your date of marriage? (or date when you started living together if not legally married)

67. What is your date of birth?

68. Sex:

Female

Male

69. What is your religious preference?

UNITED
CHURCH

ROMAN
CATHOLIC

ANGLICAN

SALVATION
ARMY

PENTECOSTAL

OTHER
(SPECIFY)

70. During the past year, how often did you attend church?

NOT AT
ALL

A FEW
TIMES

ABOUT ONCE
A MONTH

2 - 3 TIMES
A MONTH

ONCE A WEEK
OR MORE

71. How much schooling have you completed?

8TH GRADE OR LESS
SOME HIGH SCHOOL
GRAD. HIGH SCHOOL
SOME TECH. SCHOOL

GRAD. TECH. SCHOOL
SOME UNIVERSITY
GRAD. UNIVERSITY
OTHER (SPECIFY)

72. What is your usual occupation? _____

73. Are you employed now?

NO
↓

YES
↓

OTHER (SPECIFY) _____
↓

If no:

i Are you looking for work?

NO

YES

ii Are you engaged in any educational or occupational program aimed at employment in the future?

NO

YES

If yes:

i What is your present occupation?

ii Do you work

FULL-TIME

PART-TIME

iii Do you work because

YOUR FAMILY
NEEDS THE
INCOME?

YOU ENJOY YOUR
WORK?

74. What is your husband/wife's occupation? _____

75. How many of your children (if any) live away from home? Give ages and sex.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

76. Does anyone besides you, your husband/wife and your children live with you?

NO

YES:
↓

If yes:

i How many others? _____

ii Who are they? _____

77. How long has your family lived in _____ ?

LESS THAN 1 YEAR	1 - 5 YEARS	MORE THAN 5 YEARS BUT LESS THAN 10	10 - 15 YEARS	MORE THAN 15 YEARS
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78. Where do your parents live?

IN SAME HOUSE	IN NEIGH- BOURHOOD	IN ST JOHN'S AREA	IN NEW- FOUNDLAND	IN CANADA	OUT OF CANADA	DECEASED
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79. How much contact do you have with your parents?

DAILY	AT LEAST WEEKLY	1 - 3 TIMES PER MONTH	ONLY OCCASIONALLY	NONE AT ALL
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80. This is the end of the questionnaire. Please feel free at this time to make further comments on any of the topics covered or on any other aspects of family life in general.

Closing Statement (to both husband and wife)

Thank you very much for your time and co-operation. If you would like a summary of the results of this study, please print your name and mailing address on the yellow card. We will be most happy to send you a copy of the results as soon as they become available.

There is a possibility that this project will be followed up by another study in the next year or two. If you agree to participate again at that time, please indicate same on blue card.

Again, thank you very much.

Appendix B

Screening Call to Randomly Selected

Telephone Listings

Format of Screening Call to Telephone Listing

(The purpose of the screening call as explained on page 52 was to determine whether or not that listing met the criteria for eligibility)

My name is Wayne Payne, calling from the School of Social Work at Memorial University. We are conducting a research project in family life in which we would like to talk to parents of school age children. Your name has been randomly selected from the telephone directory and I would like to ask you a couple of questions to determine your eligibility:

1. Do you have any children attending school this year?
2. Is your husband/wife living at home with you?

If the respondent was not eligible (did not reply yes to both questions), he/she was thanked for their time.

If eligible, it was further explained that they met the requirements of the study and were invited to further participate in the study. It was explained that the study consisted of a personal interview which took approximately 45 minutes to complete in the home. Both parents would be interviewed simultaneously but separately. Assurance was also given that all responses would be kept confidential.

Where required, additional information was given to the respondent as to the study's purpose, how many to be interviewed. If an agreement was reached an appointment was arranged to complete the questionnaire through a personal interview with both the husband and wife.

Appendix C

Interviewer Notes

FAMILY RESEARCH PROJECT 1979

INTERVIEWER NOTES

1. Apart from the respondent and yourself, was there anyone else present during the interview?

YES
↓

NO (Go to 3.)

2. Who? (Give number of each)

_____ Spouse

_____ Sons _____ years old

_____ Parents

_____ Daughters _____ years old

_____ Parents-in-law

_____ Friends

_____ Relatives

_____ Neighbours

_____ Others (specify) _____

3. How often was the respondent distracted?

CONTINUALLY
DISTRACTED

SEVERAL TIMES
DURING THE
INTERVIEW

A FEW TIMES
DURING THE
INTERVIEW

NOT AT ALL

4. What was the degree of rapport between yourself and the respondent?

POOR

FAIR

GOOD

EXCELLENT

5. What was the degree of co-operation of the respondent?

VERY
UNCO-OPERATIVE

UNCO-OPERATIVE

CO-OPERATIVE

VERY
CO-OPERATIVE

6. What was the respondent's degree of interest in the content of the interview?

VERY
INTERESTED

SOMEWHAT
INTERESTED

NOT
INTERESTED

7. Was the respondent offended by any questions in the interview?

YES
↓

NO

Which questions? (Give section and number)

8. Do you think the respondent gave inaccurate or misleading answers to any of the questions?

YES

NO

Please give the following information for each item:

Section	Item No.	Type of inaccuracy	Reasons for doubt
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

9. Other comments:

(Please describe interview situation so that coders can get an idea about the personality behind the responses. Include such things as respondent's attitude towards you and the questionnaire and any unusual circumstances which might have any bearing on the interview.)

Appendix D

Correlation of Matrices

Female Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Parent Satisfaction	1.00							
2. Value of Children	.355	1.00						
3. Parent Preparation	.340	.289	1.00					
4. Age of Parenthood	.062	-.022	-.102	1.00				
5. Age of Marriage	-.035	.050	-.006	.709	1.00			
6. Number of Siblings	-.070	.148	.160	.032	-.058	1.00		
7. Satisfaction of Parents	.178	-.049	-.016	-.013	-.066	-.061	1.00	
8. Childhood Satisfaction	.164	.047	.032	.047	.036	.125	.375	1.00

Male Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Parent Satisfaction	1.00							
2. Value of Children	.129	1.00						
3. Parent Preparation	.215	.323	1.00					
4. Age of Parenthood	.081	.150	-.271	1.00				
5. Age of Marriage	-.062	.130	.186	.881	1.00			
6. Number of Siblings	.045	-.027	-.117	-.006	.074	1.00		
7. Satisfaction of Parents	.241	-.110	.145	-.015	-.086	-.061	1.00	
8. Childhood Satisfaction	-.143	.087	.098	.007	.072	.127	.306	1.00

Appendix E

Figures

Figure 4: Age of Parenthood for Males and Females

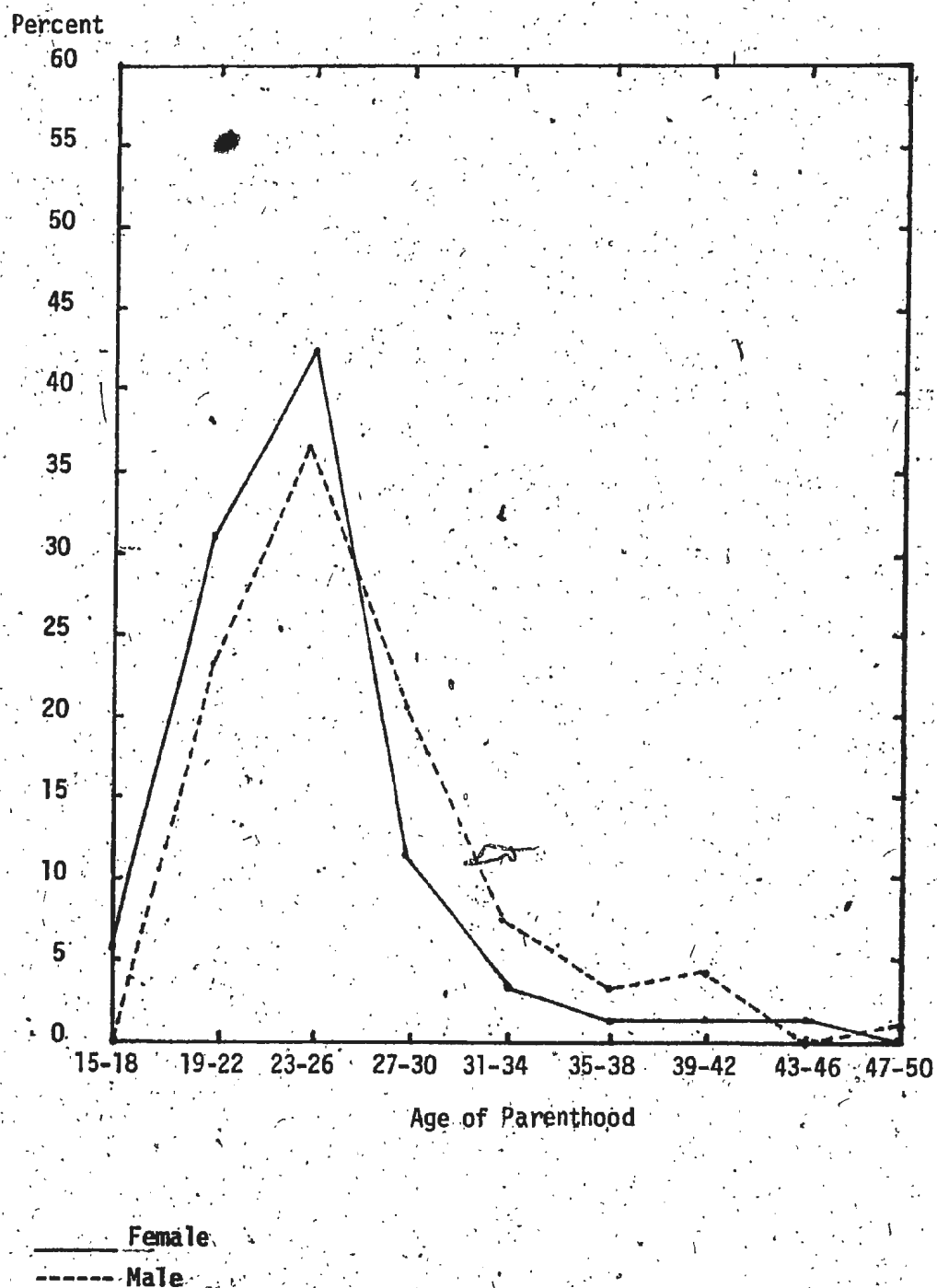


Figure 5: Age of Marriage for Males and Females.

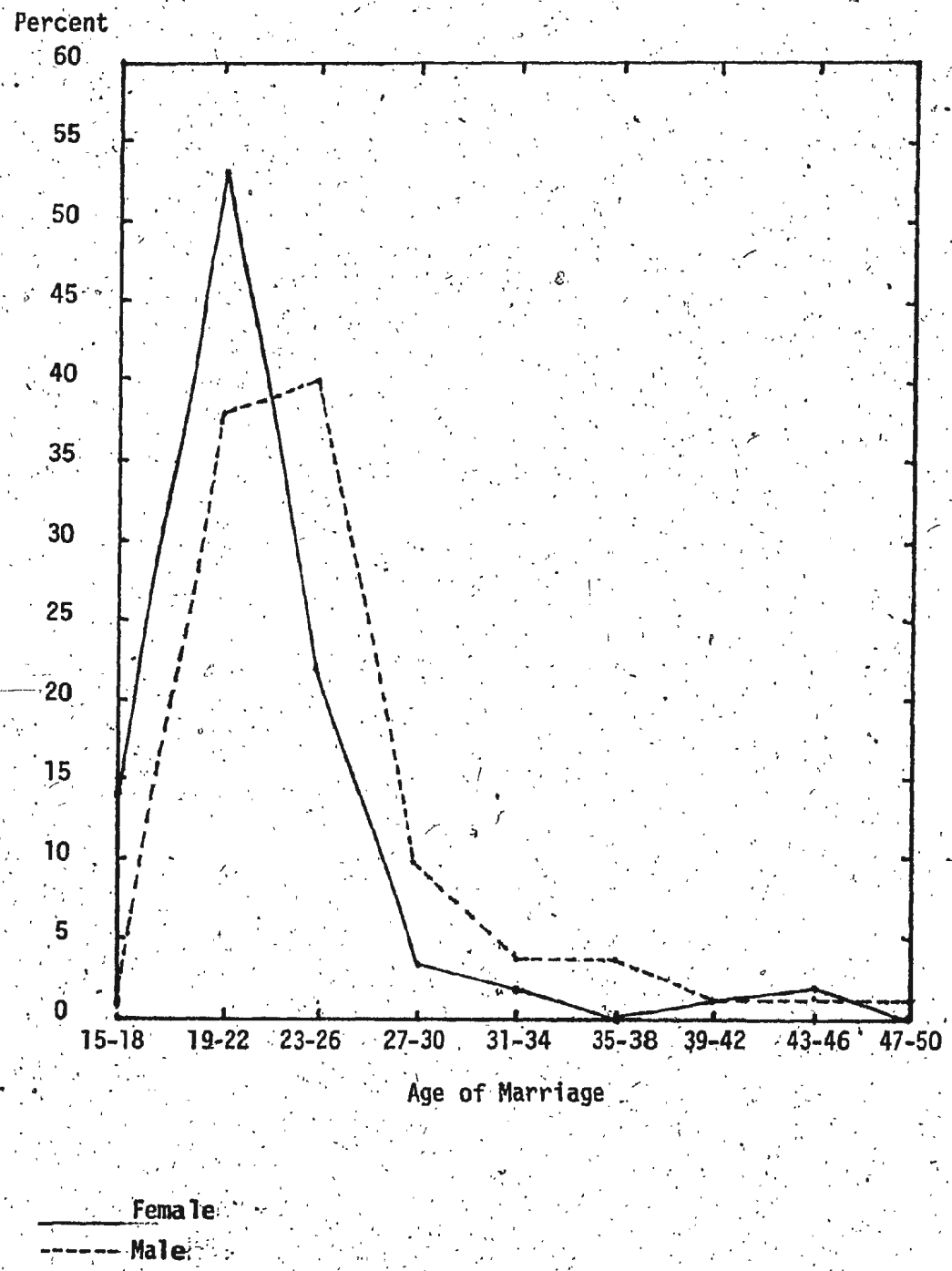


Figure 6: Number of Siblings for Males and Females.

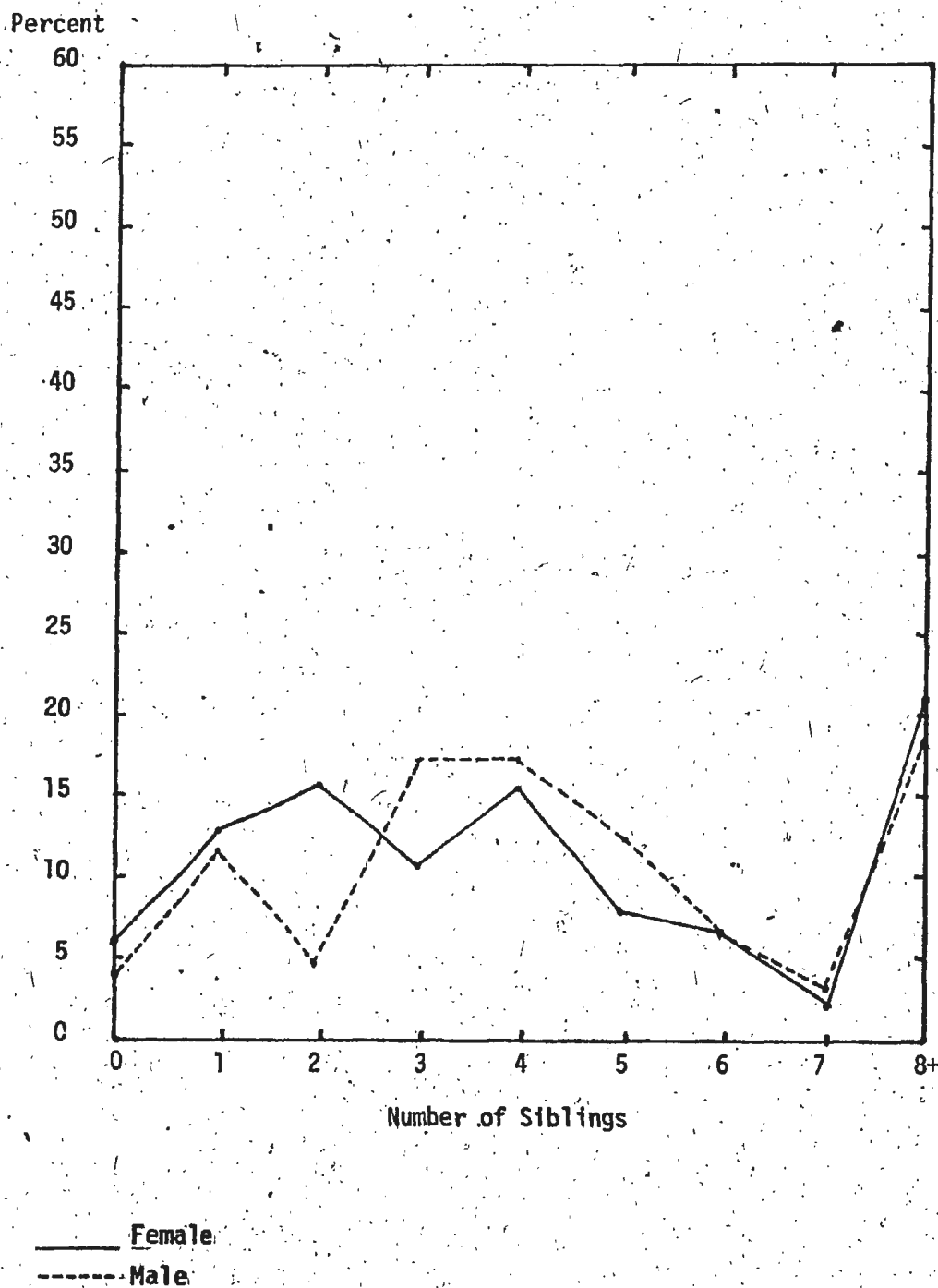


Figure 7: Number of Children Per Couple.

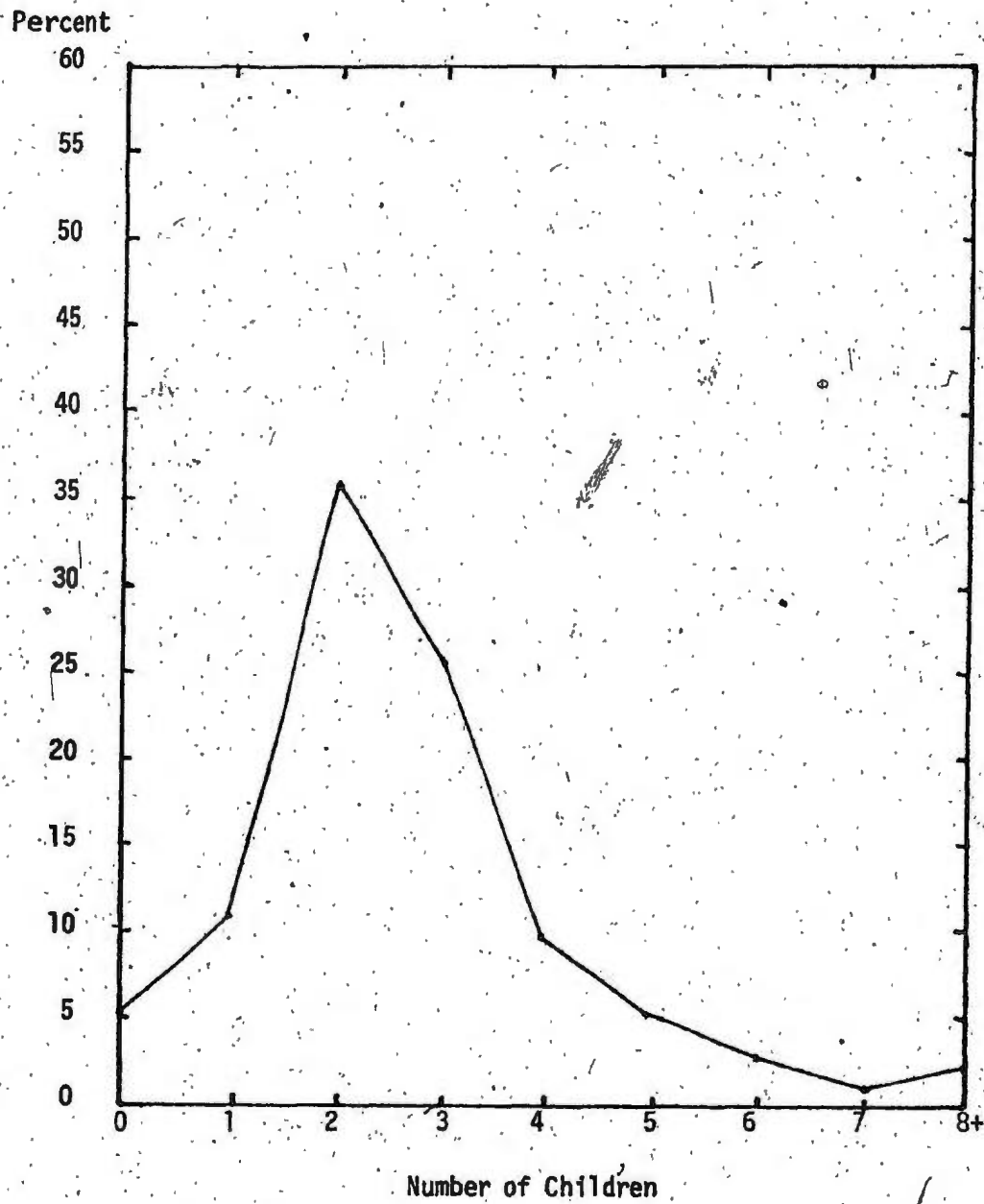


Figure 8: Levels of Parent Preparation for Males and Females.

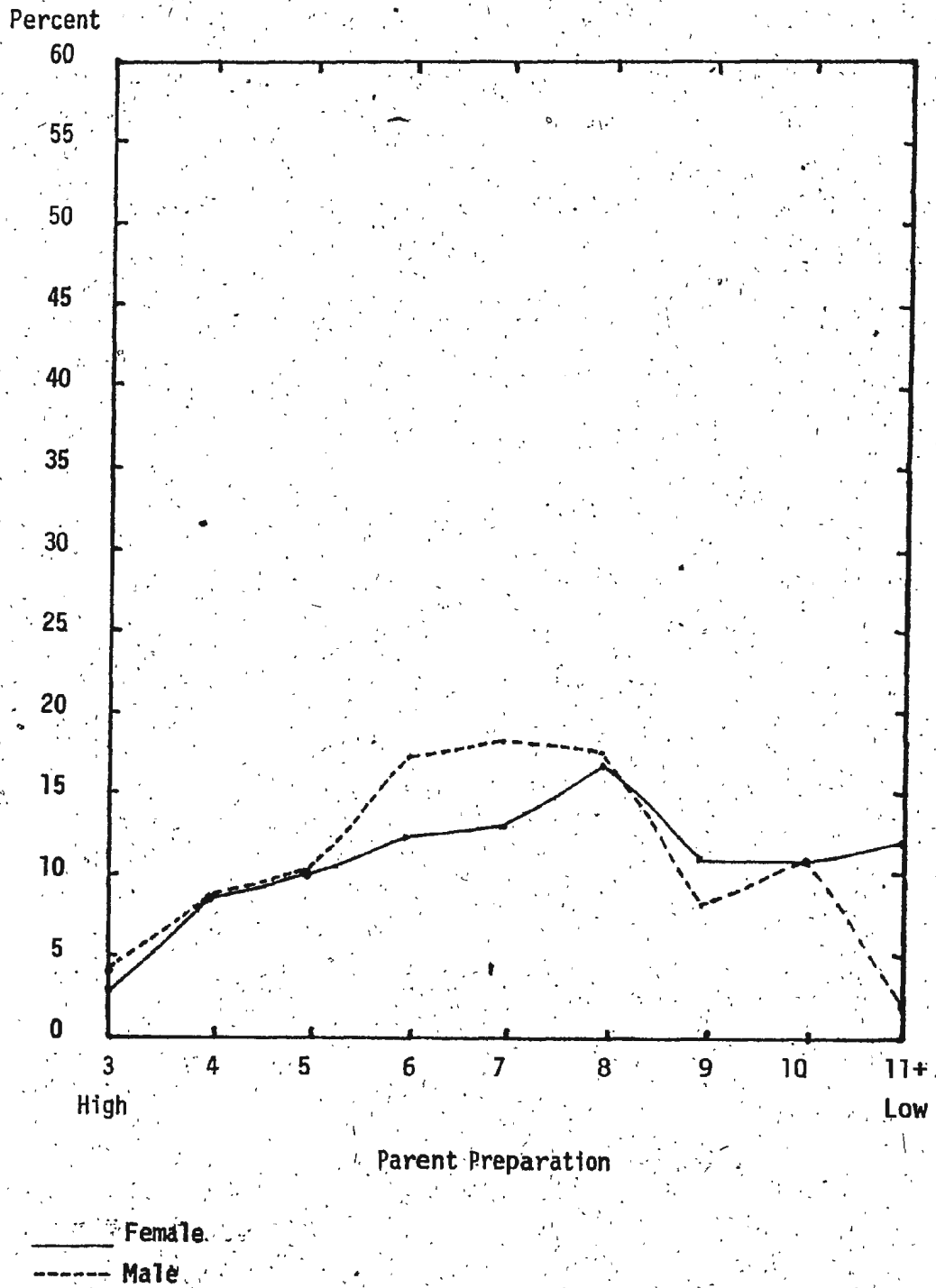


Figure 9: Levels of Parent Satisfaction for Males and Females

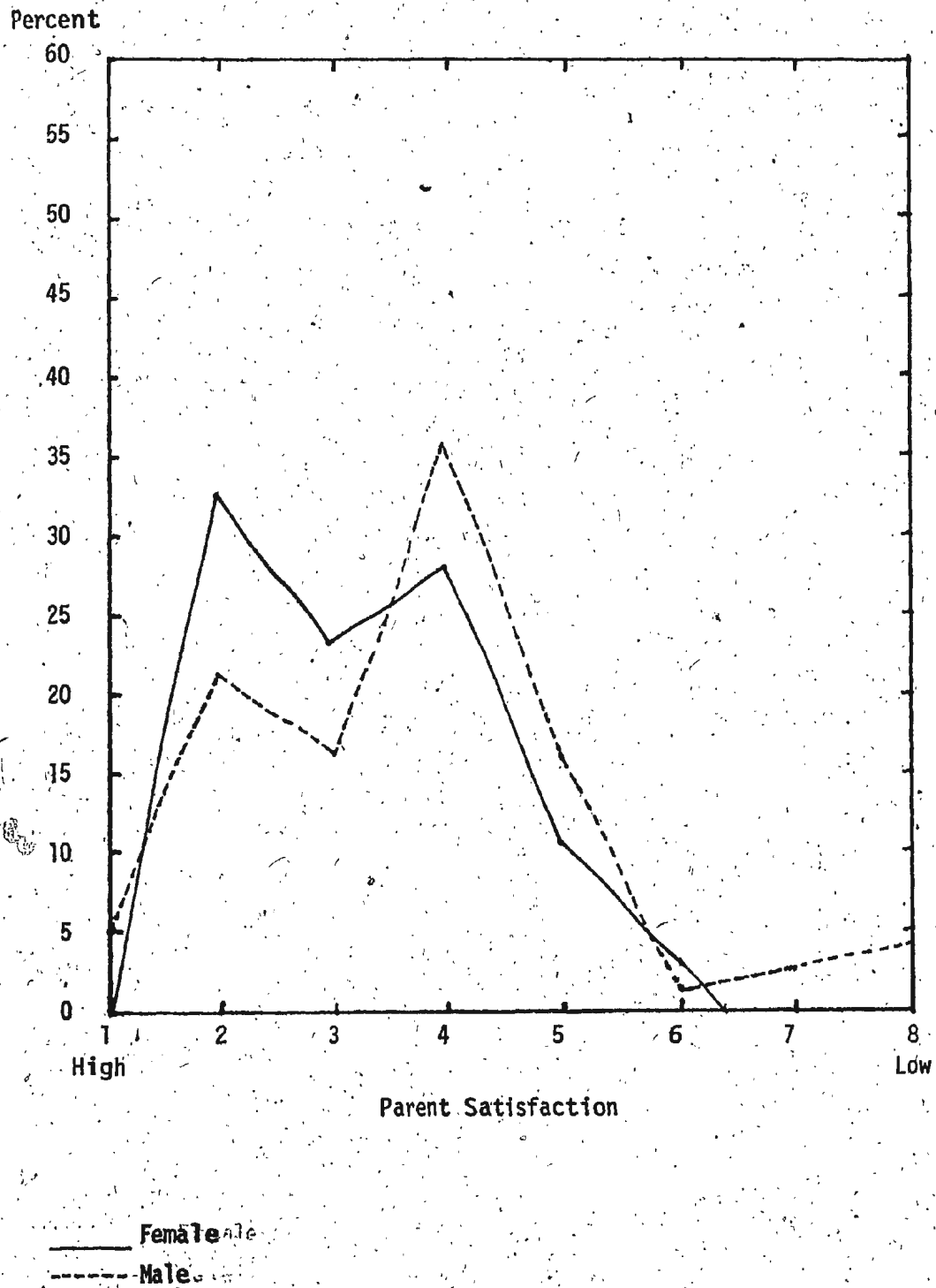


Figure 10: Highest Level of Education Obtained by Males and Females.

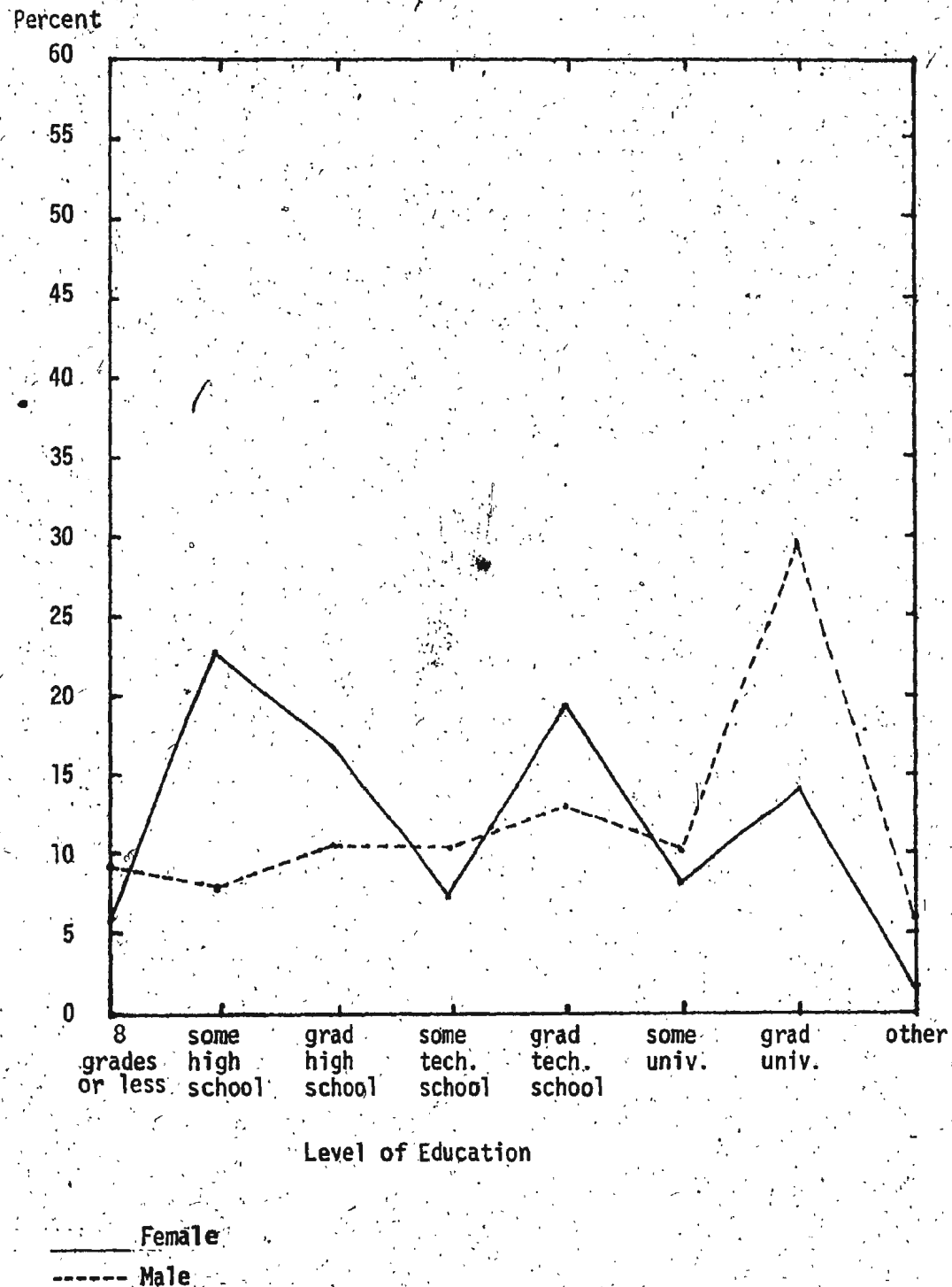


Figure 11: Levels of Childhood Satisfaction for Males and Females.

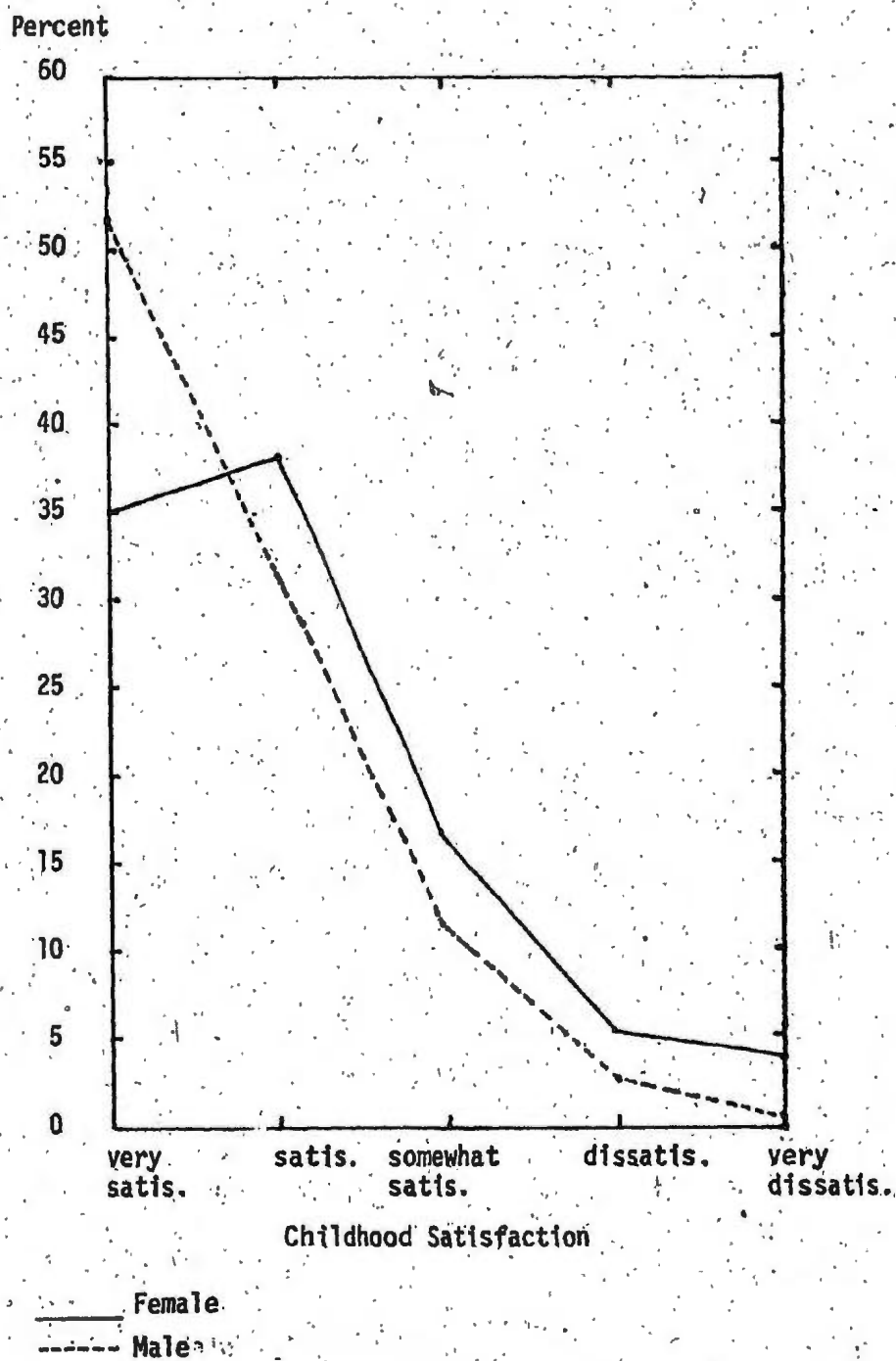


Figure 12: Satisfaction Level of Males' and Females' Parents

